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THE MICROCOSM OF LONDON

OR

LONDON IN MINIATURE

VOL. II

THE MICROCOSM OF LONDON

OR

LONDON IN MINIATURE

[Ackermann, Rudolph]

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VOLUME II

WITH THIRTY-TWO ILLUSTRATIONS BY PUGIN AND ROWLANDSON

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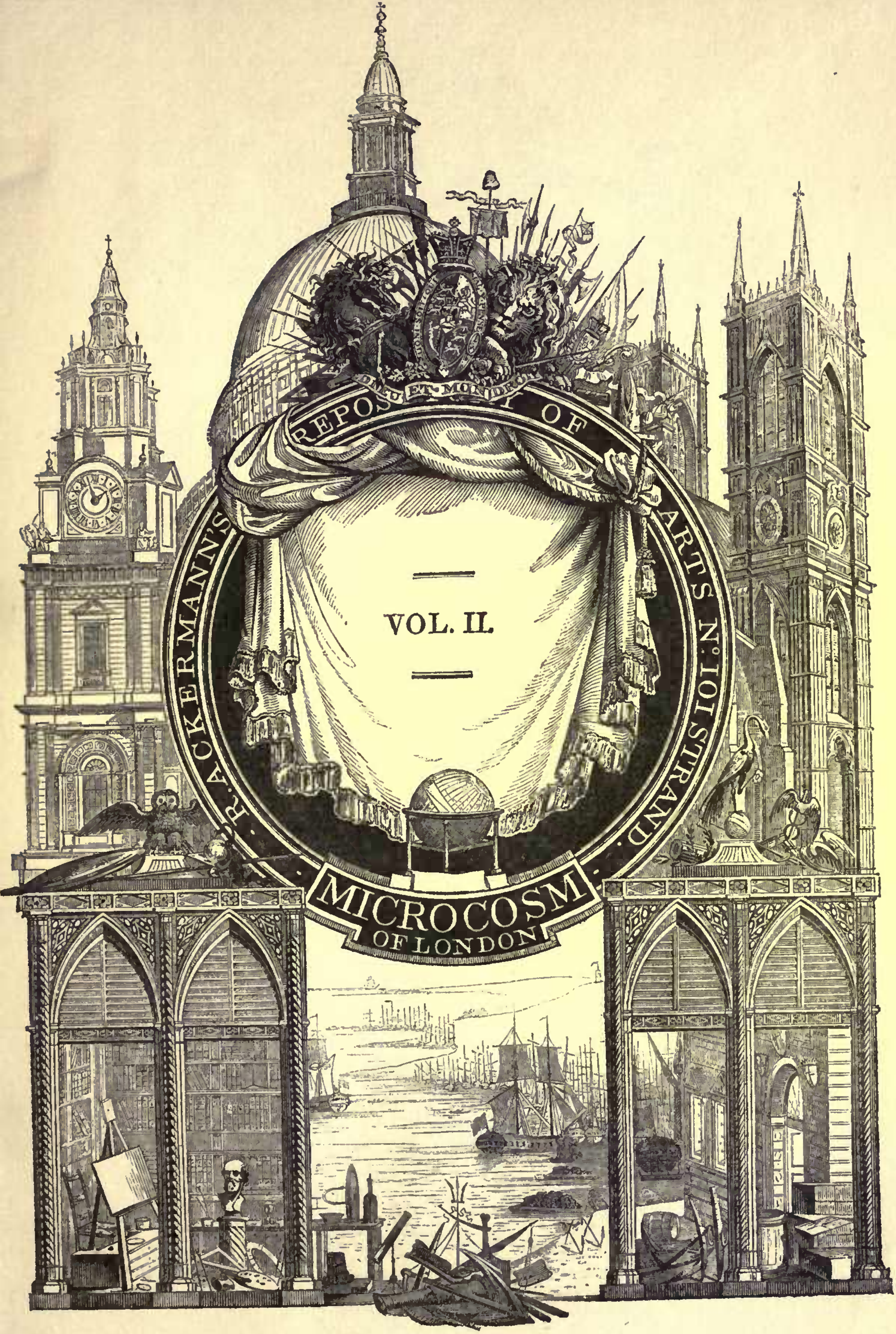
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R. ACKERMANN'S REPOSITORY OF ARTS No. 101 STRAND.
VOL. II.
MICROCOSM
OF LONDON

E. F. Burney del. sculp.

THE
MICROCOSM
of
LONDON.

THIS WORK
Already honoured by HIS Approbation.
Is most Humbly Dedicated by Permission.
To His Royal Highness
THE
Prince of Wales

ICH DIEN

BY HIS GRATEFUL, AND OBEDIENT SERVANT,

R. ACKERMANN.

Wm Tomkins Scrip. Robt Ashby Sculp.

INTRODUCTION

AT the commencement of a second volume, the proprietor of the MICROCOSM OF LONDON presents himself to the public with a confidence resulting from the kind protection which they have extended to the work, and from a strong conviction with which he is impressed, that their satisfaction is mutual.

When the proposals for this work were first published, he could offer no other pledge in return for the confidence he solicited, but what might be supposed to arise from the execution of other works in which he had been engaged, and from the acknowledged merit of the persons employed; but he flatters himself he shall not at this period be accused of vanity, if he appeals to the work itself for a proof of the anxious punctuality with which he has endeavoured to discharge his engagements, and to merit a continuance of public approbation. That patronage which has already been so generously extended to him, and the high honour of being permitted to dedicate this work to one of the best judges, as well as the most liberal encouragers of the polite arts, so far from permitting the proprietor to relax in his efforts, will, on the contrary, excite him to leave no means unemployed to communicate pleasure and information to his readers, and to present them with a second volume equally distinguished for the elegance of the plates with which it is embellished, the accuracy of the information it conveys, and the variety of entertainment as well as novelty it affords, so far as the subjects which his plan embraces will permit.

He has to apologize for two deviations from the plan originally proposed. The one by exchanging some of the subjects for others which have been considered as more interesting, either from the information by which they may be accompanied, or as affording more picturesque subjects for the plates. The other alteration is, the having formed the work into three volumes instead of four, although the number of plates is the same, and the letter-press, both in importance and quantity, more considerable than was originally proposed: the reasons for this were stated to the subscribers when the sixth number was published.

There has been another alteration indeed, of which it becomes the proprietor to say a few words. He was anxious to render this work to the public at as moderate a price as possible, and therefore proposed the subscriptions at only *seven shillings per number*, but he had not then sufficiently calculated the expence of so considerable an undertaking; notwithstanding which he continued to keep pace, and even to emulate the patronage of the public, by increasing the value of the MICROCOSM as the number of his subscribers increased: but there was a point at which this emulation ceased to be any longer a virtue, and he was at length obliged to raise the subscriptions to *ten shillings and sixpence per number* to those who became subscribers after the publication of the first volume; and he flatters himself, that the manner in which he has performed his engagement to near one thousand of his old subscribers, without any additional expence, will entitle him to some credit with the nobility and others who have become subscribers since that period, when he assures them, it is, even at the present subscription, not only very inadequate to its real value, but that there is no work at present issuing from the press and the pencil so cheap and so complete.

To compare it with other works of a similar nature, would prove a task equally irksome and disagreeable; it is far otherwise when the proprietor has to express his thanks to those whose assistance he is proud to acknowledge, and to the artists and others, who have contributed by their zeal, abilities, and attention, to the success of the undertaking.

If in the hurry incident to a publication which requires to be delivered on a certain day, any inaccuracies have escaped the particular attention which is bestowed, it is hoped that a candid allowance will be made, and the intimation of such inaccuracies will be thankfully received.

CONTENTS

OF VOL. II

PAGE

CORN EXCHANGE, THE - - - - - - 13

EXHIBITION OF THE SOCIETY OF PAINTERS IN WATER COLOURS 25

FIRE IN LONDON - - - - - - 36

FLEET PRISON - - - - - - 44

FOUNDLING HOSPITAL - - - - - 61

FREE-MASONS' HALL - - - - - - 79

GAMING-HOUSE - - - - - - 94

GUILDHALL - - - - - - 103

———— COUNCIL-CHAMBER - - - - 114

———— MEETING OF CREDITORS - - - - 123

HERALDS' COLLEGE - - - - - - 125

MIDDLESEX HOSPITAL - - - - - 133

EAST INDIA COMPANY - - - - - 139

KING'S BENCH PRISON - - - - - 161

KING'S MEWS - - - - - - - 162

LAMBETH PALACE - - - - - - 163

LLOYD'S - - - - - - - 174

LEADENHALL MARKET - - - - - 176

LORD MAYOR'S HOUSE - - - - - 181

LORDS, HOUSE OF - - - - - - 183

LOTTERY - - - - - - - 193

CONTENTS

PAGE
MAGDALEN - - - - - - - - 196
MINT - - - - - - - - 203
MOUNTING GUARD, ST. JAMES'S PARK - - - - 206
NEWGATE - - - - - - - - 209
OLD BAILEY - - - - - - - 212
OPERA-HOUSE - - - - - - - 213
PANTHEON - - - - - - - - 215
PHILANTHROPIC SOCIETY - - - - - 222
PILLORY - - - - - - - - 226
POST-OFFICE - - - - - - - 230
QUAKERS' MEETING - - - - - - 236

N.B. The binder is requested to note the above, as furnishing him with directions for the arrangement of the plates.

THE
MICROCOSM OF LONDON
OR
LONDON IN MINIATURE

DEBATING SOCIETY

CONTINUED

IN our last number we promised to resume this subject, in order to gratify our readers by what information we could procure respecting societies of this nature, and to say a few words upon the state of eloquence in this country.

We can only trace their first appearance a little way into the last century, and, notwithstanding it has been said that several distinguished characters made their first attempts in oratory, and tried the infant powers of their eloquence, at some of the popular forums, in order to acquire confidence* by practice and frequent exertion; yet neither history or tradition furnish us with materials to assign a great degree of celebrity to any one in particular. The English nation are said to be partial to amusements of this nature, and considering the extent to which the discussion of all political subjects may be carried in this country above all others, even with safety to the constitution, we may cease to wonder at this circumstance. It was well observed by the lord chief justice, at the trials for high treason at the Old Bailey in 1796, "That among the objects of the attention of freemen, the principles of government, the constitutions of particular governments, and, above all, of the government under which they live, will naturally engage their attention and provoke speculation." The power of communication of thoughts and opinions is the gift of God, and the freedom of it, is the source of all science, the first fruit, and the ultimate happiness of society; and therefore it seems to follow, that human laws ought not to interpose, nay, cannot interpose to prevent the communication of sentiments and opinions in voluntary assemblies of men. And yet circumstances have arisen in this country which made it expedient, if not absolutely necessary, to restrain that freedom of discussion, which degenerating into licentiousness, had nearly involved this country

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* A student at law, who studied at Poitiers, had tolerably improved himself in cases of equity, not that he was overburthened with learning, but his chief deficiency was a want of assurance and confidence to display the little knowledge he had; his father recommended him to read aloud, and to render his memory more prompt by a continued exercise of it. To effect this, he determined to read at the *Ministery.* In order to obtain a certain degree of assurance, he went every day into a garden, which was very retired, and where there grew a number of fine cabbages: thus for a long time, as he

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pursued his studies, he went to repeat his lesson to these cabbages, addressing them by the title of *gentlemen*, and dealing out his sentences as if *they* had composed an audience of scholars at a lecture. After having prepared himself in this manner for some time, he began to think he might take the chair: he accordingly ventures, comes forward, and commences his oration; proceeding the length of a single sentence, he becomes confused—then dumb altogether;—making a last effort, he at length exclaims, "*Domini, ego bene video quod non estes caules;*" or, in plain English, "Gentlemen, I clearly perceive you are no cabbages."

in a scene of murder and desolation, similar to that by which France had been afflicted. At the period to which we allude, clubs and societies were formed, in which were publicly discussed and disseminated principles more extensive in their influence and effects than any which had ever divided the opinions of mankind —principles utterly subversive of all the ancient laws and constitutions, and inimical to the moral and religious order of things established for centuries—principles which excited a desire of property among the lower orders, and a disposition to obtain it by plunder: accordingly two bills were passed in the year 1796, which put all meetings of more than fifty persons under the controul of a magistrate, who was authorized to dissolve them instantly, if any subject was brought forward, which, in his opinion, was unlawful or of a seditious tendency; and if twelve persons remained one hour after being ordered to disperse, they were adjudged guilty of felony without benefit of clergy. These two bills, on which the public bestowed the appellation of the *Pitt and Grenville Acts*, or the *Gagging Bills*, were received by the nation with the most evident and general marks of disapprobation, as being more restrictive upon the rights and undoubted privileges of Englishmen, than any which had passed since the reigns of the Tudors. On the other hand, it has been urged, that they were necessary to the preservation of the lives and property of individuals, and the security of the constitution, and ultimately, of the liberties of the people.*

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* Mr. Burke has well observed, "That the faults which grow out of the luxuriance of freedom, appear much more shocking to us, than those vices which are generated from the rankness of servitude."

In an exposition of the object and intention of one of these societies, called *The British Forum*, published by a manager, it is stated, that although the acts against seditious assemblies had expired above five years, yet such were the general alarm and universal ignorance that prevailed on this subject (namely, that these acts bore no reference, nor were ever applied to the suppression of societies for debate!) that scarcely one proprietor of a room could be found, from one extremity of London to the other, that would hire it for the purpose of public discussion. It is farther stated (after having with difficulty procured a room), that on the fourth evening's discussion, on the question whether Mr. Pope's assertion be true or false, "*That every woman is at heart a rake*," between six and seven hundred of the most elegant and fashionable of both sexes attended. On the question, "*Which is more deserving the appellation of a British patriot, Mr. Pitt or Mr. Fox?*" about five hundred persons assembled, among whom were several of the most eminent and distinguished literary and political characters in the country. On the question respecting Mr. Cobbett's assertion, that, "*As a part of general education, the learned languages are worse than useless*," the discussion continued for two evenings before an assembly of upwards of eight hundred persons inclusive.

Upon the investigation of Sir Francis Burdett's address to the electors of Westminster, the room was crowded with elegance, beauty, and fashion. On the subject of vaccination a crowded assembly attended, consisting for the most part of the medical profession, among whom were Dr. Squirrell, Dr. Thornton, Dr. Lipscombe, Mr. Chamberlayne, Mr. Blair, &c. all of whom offered their sentiments upon this truly interesting subject. We shall conclude this account with a copy of the regulations of the British Forum, from the same publication, observing, that there are several institutions of this description, and principally governed by regulations of a similar nature.

1st. The debate commences at eight o'clock, and concludes at ten.

2nd. Any gentleman is at liberty to propose a question, but the proposer is expected to open and conclude the debate; unless in the event of a gentleman wishing to speak, the proposer, to accommodate him, may wave his privilege of reply.

3d. No gentleman is to be permitted by the chairman to speak longer than a quarter of an hour, unless with the consent of a majority of the audience. Any gentleman may remind the chairman that the time is expired. Any improper person who may intrude himself on the audience, or whose sentiments are manifestly disagreeable to them, may be prevented from speaking at all; this must be determined by a vote of the assembly.

4th. At a quarter before ten o'clock, the chairman must call upon the gentleman who opened the question to conclude the evening's debate.

5th. After the opener has been called upon for his reply, no other gentleman can be heard on that evening, unless a motion of adjournment be made, seconded, and carried by a majority of the audience; in which case any gentleman may conclude that evening's debate instead of the opener, and the debate is necessarily adjourned to a future evening.

6th. Upon an adjourned question, any gentleman may resume the discussion; but such as have not spoken on the preceding evening claim the preference before such as have already delivered their sentiments. The original opener must conclude the debate.

7th. All personalities, indelicate language, or improper allusions, are to be carefully avoided.

The antiquity of eloquence in England has been usually proved by a line of Juvenal,

> Gallia causidicos docuit facunda Britannos.

It happens unfortunately, that, when united with the context, it proves no such thing; on the contrary, it is only an ironical panegyric on a people, who, in a language they were scarce able to pronounce, affected to vie with Pliny and Cicero. The true sense appears from what immediately follows:

> De conducendo loquitur jam rhetore Thule.

The state of eloquence in this country may be divided into that of the theatre, the pulpit, the bar, and the parliament. In the first Mr. John Kemble is certainly unrivalled: if he is not possessed of those versatile powers which distinguished Garrick, and enabled him to personate with equal excellence an Hamlet or Abel Drugger, he is peculiarly gifted with powers, which make him in some respects superior to that great actor. It is not his form, however, but his elocution, to which our attention is now directed. His performance of Orestes in the *Distrest Mother*, is a *chef d'œuvre* in acting; the agonies of disappointed affection, the struggles between honour and ambition, the majesty of his action, the alternate softness and energy of his expression, and, lastly, the grandeur and sublimity with which he portrays the awful wildness of a disordered intellect, place him beyond all comparison the first actor of the present day.

In the performance of Rolla he is also unrivalled. We have seen Othello, Beverly, and perhaps Macbeth, performed as well; and certainly Mr. Cooke performs Richard the Third better than Mr. Kemble. In Hamlet again Mr. Kemble exhibits his great powers to advantage.

In the speech wherein Shakespeare has so charmingly portrayed our nature, beginning with

> "What a piece of work is man!"

Mr. K. gives a fine specimen of theatric declamation, universally admired; there is a distinctness in his articulation, and richness in his expression, which command the attention, and seldom fail to excite a high degree of public sensibility.

Mr. Kemble reminds us of Demosthenes, who is said to have had a weak voice, a thick way of speaking, and a short breath, to correct which, the accounts we have of his efforts seem incredible: at length, however, he became the most enchanting, nervous, majestic orator of antiquity.

Mr. Cooke is an instance of how much may be effected without the appearance of labour. His features are strongly marked, and the expression of them is varied with the utmost rapidity and ease. His soliloquies are great, and he speaks them with less appearance of acting than any other performer upon the stage. He has certainly acquired a knowledge which may be useful to others, that *absence of effort is among the latest acquisitions of taste.*

Mr. Elliston unites more versatility of powers than either of the preceding gentlemen; there is a chasteness in his delivery that wants only the addition of that mellowness which is the effect of experience, rather than genius. If he is not uniformly as great as Mr. J. Kemble, there are flashes of genius which occasionally burst forth, and tell us, that he may be in some parts greater. He is particularly to be admired in tragedy, for avoiding that insufferable rant and fustian of elocution, which tear a passion to tatters. His under tones are managed with great skill and sensibility.

In speaking of the eloquence of the stage, it would be unpardonable not to mention Mrs. Siddons, who unites in the highest degree all the great powers of this art. To particularize would be to lessen what the limits of our design will not admit of our doing justice to.

It was observed by a respectable foreigner some years ago, that the declamation of the English pulpit was in general a most tedious monotony. The ministers of the church have adopted this peculiarity of manner out of respect to religion, which they contend, will prove, defend, and support itself, without having any occasion for the assistance of oratory. For the truth of this assertion, we appeal to themselves for the progress which religion thus inculcated makes among the people of this country. The curious observer of the present state of pulpit oratory, will perhaps discover a higher degree of improvement in the manner of delivery, than in the elegance of style, or the matter of composition.

The oratory of the bar is comparatively at a low ebb: the sweetness of Murray, and the eloquence of Erskine, are exchanged for the unblushing *persiflage* of Garrow, and the close, logical precision of Gibbs. Indeed, the discussions in our courts of law turning either upon the elucidation of facts, or the application of the law to those facts, so as to bring the point at issue to decision, requires less of eloquence, than subtilty and knowledge of law; and as there occur but few instances in which the former can be as useful as the latter, there is less inducement for the cultivation of this peculiar talent. In the courts of equity eloquence is even less necessary. The pleadings there seem to be formed upon the model of the ancient Norman customs or laws, which confined the eloquence of the bar within the narrowest bounds, or to what was absolutely essential to the cause. By this law, pleaders are called *conteurs*, or relaters. But this should certainly not preclude the cultivation of elegance in manner or language, or the suppression of those defects which take away from the pleasure with which we attend to, and therefore from the effect of eloquence.

Demosthenes, we are told, took no less care of his action than he did of his voice. To correct a fault of *shrugging up his shoulders*, he practised standing upright in a narrow pulpit, over which hung a point in such a manner, that if in the heat of his action that motion escaped him, he might be admonished, and correct it.

But it is in the two Houses of Parliament that real eloquence is displayed; it is here the most important interests of the nation are discussed with all that energy and animation which the love of their country, or the spirit of party, can excite. If this miscellany had been written a very few years since, we should have been tempted to rate the eloquence of the British senate very high indeed; when Pitt, Fox, Burke, and Sheridan, together illumined the political horizon. The first distinguished by that calm and easy-flowing eloquence, which was always accompanied with propriety, occasionally warm, splendid, and animated, but seldom lively or pathetic; uncommonly clear and accurate in stating the points to which he spoke, and in collecting the substance of what had been stated either by his opponent or himself: he possessed an elegant choice of words, which flowed in periods so harmonious and correct, that the omission of a single word would seem to destroy them; a copious elocution, with a sonorous voice, for which he was indebted to a fine natural capacity, improved by constant exercise and attention.

His great opponent possessed powers of a very different nature: without effort and without art, his manner was warm, animated, and pathetic; more violent in his style and action, and abounding with redundancies and repetitions: his ideas were so pregnant, that, crowding altogether as it were to the gate of utterance, they appeared to jostle each other in the passage. But this was the man, whose eloquence at once rapid and convincing, every one gazed at and admired; this was the man, whose eloquence sometimes bore every thing before it like a torrent, and at others stole imperceptibly upon the senses, and probed the inmost recesses of the heart.

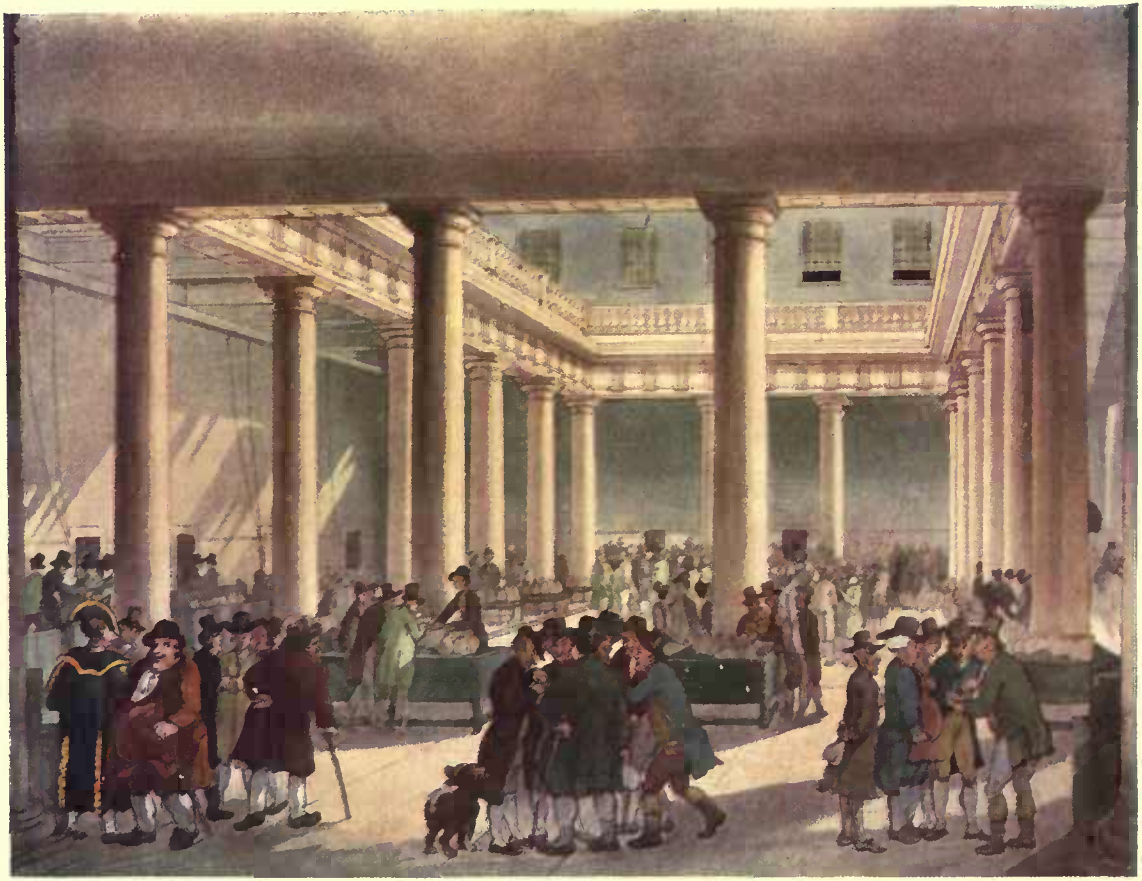
It is more difficult to characterize the eloquence of Mr. Burke. It was neither the eloquence of Cicero or Demosthenes, but occasionally rivalled both. It was often great, but sometimes very unequal; the alacrity of his imagination was seldom sufficiently subdued by his judgment, and he too often suffered the vivacity of his fancy to run away with his more correct taste: but no man possessed a more intimate acquaintance with those parts of literature which feed the springs of eloquence—no one had been more thoroughly nurtured at the breast of philosophy—no one was better acquainted with the genius and spirit of the laws and constitution of his country—no one was more completely a master of its history, which so often enabled him to teach by example, and bring the venerable dead to the instruction of the living—no one knew how to dilate his subject with more propriety, to enliven it by agreeable digression, or by telling the tale of sorrow, to draw forth the tear of sympathy and compassion.

Mr. Sheridan has exhibited perhaps altogether the most splendid specimen of eloquence which this country affords. It is embellished with all the brilliant figures of rhetoric, and studded with sentiment. It is a florid, picturesque species of oratory, interwoven with the most elegant language, and embroidered with the most beautiful expressions: it leaves us nothing to regret, but that talents so great and estimable, are not rendered more useful to his country, or more frequently exerted.

Cicero, in giving an account of the studies and labour which he employed in order to attain the excellence to which he at length arrived, has drawn a picture of his contemporary, Hortensius, which seems very applicable to Mr. Sheridan.

"Hortensius, after his appointment to the consulship, had begun to remit the intense application which he had hitherto persevered in from his childhood. In the three succeeding years, the beauty of his colouring was so much impaired, as to be very perceptible to a skilful, though not to a common observer. After that he grew every day more unlike himself than before, not only in other parts of eloquence, but by a gradual decay of the former celerity and elegant texture of his language. When Hortensius therefore, the once eloquent and admired Hortensius, had almost vanished from the forum, my appointment to the consulship, which happened about six years after his own promotion to that office, revived his dying emulation; for he was unwilling, that, after I had equalled him in rank and dignity, I should become his superior in any other respect."

There are a number of our commoners who possess an elegant and easy flow of words, uncommon perspicuity of language, and who treat the subjects under discussion with great soundness of argument; but there are few whose powers are calculated to dazzle or surprise, or to carry us away with a force of eloquence commanding and irresistible. There are many who can treat common subjects with simplicity and neatness, but none who are equal to the task of developing great and weighty matters with energy and pathos, unless we sometimes except Mr. Windham, and occasionally Mr. Whitbread. In the House of Lords the late Chancellor Erskine is without dispute the most brilliant orator; but certainly his eloquence, and the sources which feed it, are more adapted to forensic than parliamentary debate. Lord Grenville employs a nervous, chastised, and dignified species of oratory, but seldom approaches the highest regions of the art, and is interesting without being splendid or pathetic; he takes an ample and comprehensive view of his subject, is argumentative without fluency, and sincere without being animated. He divides his subject with great exactness, and seldom overlooks any thing that is proper to support his own argument, or refute his opponent's; and he unites qualities which are seldom found together, great strength with a superior elegance. There are many other noblemen whose eloquence belongs to the highest class, but which it is impossible for us to characterize particularly: among whom, the present chancellor Lord Eldon, the Lords Hawkesbury, Holland, Lauderdale, Suffolk, Sidmouth, and Redesdale, are particularly distinguished; nor must we forget that eloquence which so long distinguished my Lord Melville.



Pugin & Rowlandson, delt et sculpt

CORN EXCHANGE,

MARK LANE.

THE CORN-EXCHANGE

IS a very handsome building on the east side of Mark-lane. Next the street is an ascent of three steps to a range of eight lofty Doric columns, those at the corners being coupled; between them are iron rails, and three iron gates. These columns, with two others on the inside, support a plain building two stories high, which contains two coffee-houses, to which there are ascents by a flight of handsome stone steps on each side of the edifice. On entering the iron gates, you pass by these steps into a small square (paved with broad stones,) which is surrounded by a colonnade, composed of six columns on each side, and four at the end, reckoning the corners twice. Above the entablature is a handsome balustrade, surrounding the whole square, with an elegant vase placed over each column. The space around within the colonnade is very broad, with sash windows on the top, to give the greater light to the corn-factors, who sit round the court below. Each has a kind of desk before him (as shewn in the plate), on which are several handfuls of corn, and from these small samples are every market-day sold many thousand quarters.

A TABLE *of the Corn exported from England during five years, distinguishing the species thereof, with the bounties payable thereon laid before Parliament.*

Years.	Barley.	Malt.	Oatmeal.	Rye.	Wheat.		Quantity.	Bounty.
	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.		Quarters.	£
1744	20090	219862	1657	74169	231984	Barley .	449289	56159
1745	95878	219354	9770	83966	324839	Malt . .	1426264	184195
1746	158719	282024	20203	45782	130646	Oatmeal	37366	4668
1747	103140	361280	2122	92718	266906	Rye . .	339883	69977
1748	73857	349363	3768	103891	543387	Wheat .	1455642	363908
Totals	451684	1431883	37520	400526	1497762	Totals	3768444	678907

N.B. The difference between the quantity of corn exported, and that of corn exported for bounty, is occasioned by some that has been exported to Alderney, Guernsey, and Jersey, and some in foreign ships, which is not entitled to bounty.

These great exports have been principally from the ports of London, Ipswich, Yarmouth, Wales, Lynn Regis, Hull, Bristol, Southampton, Cowes, Chichester, and Shoreham; and the chief countries exported to are, Holland, Germany, Sweden, Denmark, Portugal, and the Mediterranean; but France and Flanders, on account of the war, had not any transmitted, except a certain supply sent to fill the French magazines previous to opening the campaign, which was a main cause of the precipitate and ill-considered treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

The total exports of the above period of five years being 3,768,444 quarters of different species of corn, may be supposed to have produced,

at 35*s.* per quarter......................	£6,594,777
at 40*s.* ,, ...	7,536,888
at 45*s.* ,, ...	8,478,999
at 50*s.* ,, ...	9,421,110

or the medium of these sums being 8,007,948*l.* in either case it is an immense sum to flow immediately from the produce of the earth and the labour of the people, enriching our merchants, and increasing an invaluable brood of seamen.

Prices of Grain per quarter at BEAR-QUAY *and* MARK-LANE *for fifteen successive years.*

JAN.	WHEAT.	BARLEY.	OATS.	
	s. *s.*	*s.* *s.*	*s.* *s.*	*d.*
1742	26 to 29	15 to 20	12 to 15	0
1743	20 ,, 23	15 ,, 20	13 ,, 16	0
1744	19 ,, 21	11 ,, 13	9 ,, 12	0
1745	18 ,, 20	12 ,, 15	12 ,, 16	0
1746	17 ,, 24	10 ,, 13	12 ,, 14	0
1747	27 ,, 30	8 ,, 12	7 ,, 11	0
1748	26 ,, 28	13 ,, 14	9 ,, 12	0
1749	27 ,, 32	17 ,, 18	14 ,, 16	0
1750	24 ,, 27	14 ,, 17	12 ,, 13	0
1751	24 ,, 27	14 ,, 17	12 ,, 13	0
1752	20 ,, 25	10 ,, 13	9 ,, 11	0
1753	29 ,, 35	17 ,, 18	10 ,, 12	0
1754	27 ,, 33	17 ,, 19	12 ,, 13	0
1755	24 ,, 26	12 ,, 14	10 ,, 13	0
1756	22 ,, 26	14 ,, 15	12 ,, 13	6

The two following pages exhibit an account of the weekly quantities of BRITISH CORN sold in the port of London, eastward of London bridge, *with the average prices per quarter for one year*, ending 25th June, 1808, under an act of 31st George III. cap. 30.

WEEKS.	ENDING.	BARLEY.				BEANS.				OATS.			
		Quarters.	Average.			Quarters.	Average.			Quarters.	Average.		
			£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
1	4 July, 1807	2991	1	15	3	1327	1	19	5	7789	1	9	1
2	11	1915	1	15	6	740	2	0	9	9195	1	10	7
3	18	1703	1	16	9	1343	2	4	5	5463	1	9	2
4	25	1065	1	19	2	958	2	6	4	4926	1	9	10
5	1 August	654	2	0	0	1535	2	4	7	4267	1	9	0
6	8	1100	1	18	9	1223	2	6	9	4753	1	8	4
7	15	1259	1	18	8	1971	2	8	7	2410	1	10	0
8	22	946	1	17	11	1925	2	7	1	5645	1	8	7
9	29	569	1	18	1	1151	2	6	4	3325	1	8	0
10	5 September	1307	1	18	5	1101	2	9	4	2766	1	8	9
11	12	930	1	19	0	1024	2	12	3	2453	1	10	3
12	19	1101	1	19	8	1369	2	12	11	6045	1	12	8
13	26	1907	2	0	5	2149	2	12	2	8258	1	12	0
14	3 October	1243	2	1	11	1425	2	12	0	10162	1	11	0
15	10	3920	2	2	0	2933	2	13	2	7926	1	11	9
16	17	5705	2	0	8	2113	2	14	4	14634	1	11	0
17	24	5118	2	0	0	1330	3	0	11	13811	1	11	1
18	31	4117	2	1	0	1272	2	16	0	13345	1	10	11
19	7 November	4491	2	2	6	1189	2	16	5	10160	1	10	11
20	14	5804	2	4	7	2162	2	17	9	8969	1	11	5
21	21	5241	2	5	8	2287	2	17	2	6838	1	12	5
22	28	5167	2	5	10	827	2	15	9	3473	1	13	4
23	5 December	4134	2	8	1	2569	2	16	4	7971	1	16	9
24	12	13059	2	7	2	2357	2	17	2	11639	1	18	4
25	19	9346	2	5	5	2146	2	16	11	11774	1	18	11
26	26	10624	2	4	7	1352	2	18	3	5558	2	0	10
27	2 Jan. 1808	5802	2	4	1	1591	2	17	8	6194	1	18	1
28	9	7151	2	3	11	1330	2	16	8	8586	1	18	9
29	16	10461	2	3	4	1756	2	16	4	17533	1	17	10
30	23	11126	2	3	2	1758	2	15	8	17223	1	17	2
31	30	7523	2	3	3	1207	2	15	9	15634	1	15	10
32	6 February	5708	2	3	2	1128	2	16	10	14491	1	16	3
33	13	4955	2	4	8	1347	2	16	7	8374	1	17	0
34	20	8606	2	5	7	1237	2	15	8	10224	1	16	7
35	27	6854	2	4	10	1409	2	14	10	10878	1	15	7
36	5 March	6535	2	4	0	1608	2	16	6	12165	1	15	7
37	12	7930	2	3	1	1608	2	15	8	14250	1	15	2
38	19	9200	2	3	3	1289	2	14	3	16185	1	15	11
39	26	5372	2	2	4	1056	2	14	5	10062	1	16	8
40	2 April	2478	2	4	3	1178	2	14	10	2724	1	16	11
41	9	5709	2	4	11	946	2	13	11	11532	1	17	1
42	16	5310	2	4	10	1166	2	14	4	18398	1	16	1
43	23	6611	2	4	6	1176	2	14	2	15965	1	17	3
44	30	4233	2	6	7	857	2	14	8	12662	1	17	3
45	7 May	3082	2	7	8	1109	2	16	3	8754	1	18	9
46	14	3301	2	8	1	1206	2	16	8	9399	2	1	1
47	21	2941	2	8	2	1491	3	0	1	12011	2	3	4
48	28	1602	2	8	6	622	3	4	8	17339	2	4	3
49	4 June	792	2	8	4	1266	3	5	5	8917	2	5	10
50	11	1741	2	7	5	1010	3	5	4	9850	2	6	2
51	18	1460	2	5	10	1173	3	4	6	10669	2	5	4
52	25	308	2	6	2	819	3	3	0	10399	2	4	3

London, 13*th August*, 1808. E. E.

Weeks.	Ending.	PEAS.				RYE.				WHEAT.			
		Quarters.	Average.			Quarters.	Average.			Quarters.	Average.		
			£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
1	4 July, 1807	120	3	9	3	23	2	4	0	4173	3	9	11
2	11	29	2	12	0	0	0	0	0	2960	3	13	0
3	18	322	3	11	0	24	2	5	0	2971	3	12	7
4	25	298	4	10	1	2	2	8	0	2227	3	18	8
5	1 August	159	4	4	2	41	2	6	0	2032	3	17	3
6	8	215	4	13	11	22	2	9	7	3434	3	12	10
7	15	267	3	12	1	0	0	0	0	5512	3	11	9
8	22	175	5	0	7	35	2	4	0	5208	3	7	2
9	29	225	4	0	2	44	2	5	0	3750	3	5	5
10	5 September	283	4	17	0	45	2	6	11	3576	3	6	5
11	12	173	4	2	2	267	2	3	8	3635	3	5	4
12	19	188	5	0	4	56	2	3	8	4183	3	8	9
13	26	200	4	9	5	142	2	4	9	4275	3	8	4
14	3 October	228	4	14	10	11	2	4	0	3767	3	7	2
15	10	390	5	11	3	20	2	2	2	5722	3	5	10
16	17	434	7	4	5	0	0	0	0	6552	3	4	7
17	24	298	6	9	4	5	2	4	0	6359	3	4	6
18	31	191	7	13	1	5	2	4	3	4212	3	4	10
19	7 November	296	7	9	9	0	0	0	0	4140	3	2	1
20	14	293	6	15	7	0	0	0	0	5329	3	2	2
21	21	429	5	8	5	41	2	6	0	6337	3	7	0
22	28	331	6	15	7	0	0	0	0	3491	3	7	6
23	5 December	248	6	4	11	20	2	6	0	6194	3	8	9
24	12	518	7	3	4	34	2	10	0	7369	3	10	8
25	19	297	6	8	7	192	2	5	8	6370	3	13	10
26	26	455	6	6	3	10	2	10	0	5372	3	15	6
27	2 Jan. 1808	423	6	18	5	39	2	9	9	4900	3	15	0
28	9	433	6	6	11	0	0	0	0	6087	3	13	10
29	16	524	7	4	4	41	2	9	0	9803	3	12	0
30	23	402	5	19	6	50	2	10	1	9140	3	12	7
31	30	368	6	18	0	108	2	6	5	4681	3	13	4
32	6 February	351	7	4	2	32	2	10	4	6449	3	12	7
33	13	239	6	5	7	58	2	12	0	5317	3	12	2
34	20	487	6	17	4	194	2	8	8	8587	3	12	7
35	27	361	6	8	6	5	2	8	0	6193	3	11	11
36	5 March	386	5	0	3	92	2	9	11	5434	3	12	3
37	12	640	6	10	5	0	0	0	0	6992	3	10	6
38	19	453	5	17	8	0	0	0	0	6196	3	11	11
39	26	224	6	4	6	25	2	11	0	4731	3	10	11
40	2 April	238	5	17	8	63	2	9	5	3263	3	13	8
41	9	254	6	5	1	58	2	10	0	5752	3	11	1
42	16	361	5	2	10	217	2	9	9	6311	3	12	1
43	23	246	6	9	6	119	2	9	4	5207	3	11	6
44	30	169	5	5	9	11	2	9	0	5754	3	12	10
45	7 May	85	6	4	10	88	2	9	10	7223	3	12	11
46	14	259	5	11	2	32	2	9	10	6215	3	14	10
47	21	184	5	7	8	44	2	10	3	7910	3	14	8
48	28	107	4	2	2	17	2	8	4	6240	3	16	8
49	4 June	80	3	11	9	47	2	13	7	5259	4	0	10
50	11	95	3	16	0	20	2	14	0	4032	4	3	11
51	18	167	3	12	8	164	2	14	5	4862	4	2	4
52	25	51	4	6	3	62	2	13	6	4637	4	1	6

JOHN SMITON, *inspector of corn returns for the port of London.*

In the year 1770, an act passed for registering the prices at which corn is sold in the several counties in Great Britain, and the quantity exported and imported. By this act, the justices of peace for each county are required, at their quarter sessions next after the 29th September annually, to direct returns to be made weekly of the prices of wheat, rye, barley, oats, and beans, from so many market towns within their respective counties as they shall think proper, not being less than two, nor more than six, and to appoint a proper person to send the same to a person to be named to receive them.

By this act, the meal-weighers of the city of London are to take the account of the prices at the markets within the said city, and to return the average weekly to the person appointed to receive the same.

The lord high treasurer is also empowered to appoint a fit person to receive the returns, and to enter them fairly in a book kept for that purpose; and all exports and imports of grain from and into Great Britain, with the bounties paid and received thereon, are directed to be transmitted annually to the same person, and registered in proper books by the person appointed to receive the returns of the prices from the several counties.

The following tables will exhibit at one view the quantities of corn exported and imported from England and Scotland, and the average prices thereof, from the commencement of this act, drawn up from the returns made in pursuance thereof; and likewise the average price of the several sorts of grain in each year respectively.

Table of Corn exported from England and Scotland.

	Wheat and Wheat Flour.	Barley, Beer, Malt, and Meal.	Oats and Oat-meal.	Beans.	Peas.	Rye.	Bounties and Drawbacks Paid.		
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	£.	s.	d.
1771. England	10089	31166	23364	13345	3701	—	6170	7	6
Scotland	—	3050	11869	3	3	—	—		
1772. England	6959	13789	23511	13321	3775	—	—		
Scotland	—	242	87	—	—	—	—		
1773. England	7637	2445	18671	10733	4430	—	—		
Scotland	—	30	106	18	—	—	—		
1774. England	15928	2416	16311	10240	3318	2260	5961	12	0
Indian corn	1880	—	—	—	—	—			
Buck wheat	50	—	—	—	—	—			
Scotland	—	495	122	9	—	—	61	11	10
1775. England	90997	51394	26366	14418	4929	2722	9641	7	7
Indian corn	4323	—	—	—	—	—			
Scotland	40	20	119	2	—	—	—		
1776. England	207407	131264	30622	40344	14605	10999	51711	15	2
Indian corn	1957	—	—	—	—	—			
Scotland	3247	4850	4365	543	543	—	1322	13	9
1777. England	85034	132992	29381	29941	13371	946	43352	2	5
Indian corn	8	—	—	—	—	—			
Scotland	2652	9733	7233	422	422	—	2426	15	10
1778. England	137775	102211	28853	21749	15620	1706	40326	4	9
Scotland	3295	1719	27690	653	653	—	3704	11	6
1779. England	212765	81818	29430	25459	18236	3199	51446	3	8
Scotland	9495	3959	2857	897	—	—	3157	0	0
1780. England	208178	170440	18995	14911	6648	6305	70513	10	6¾
Scotland	15874	21121	8026	1380	—	—	7232	3	6½
	cwt. qrs. lbs.								
Biscuit . .	12613 1 23	—	—	—	—	—			
1781. England	93601	129639	34886	15678	3116	2700	26663	13	0½
Scotland	9418	20909	6831	550	—	—	5653	10	9¼
	cwt. qrs. lbs.								
Biscuit . .	6383 1 0	—	—	—	—	—			
1782. England	133364	107720	19726	19719	5993	4003	42336	11	0¼
Scotland	11787	20025	3590	416	—	—	5633	3	5¼
1783. England	45169	52635	11576	10191	2701	3304	13579	0	6½
Scotland	6773	1430	249	67	—	60	179	15	5
1784. England	83387	66838	12366	7922	2865	5821	22925	1	8½
Scotland	5880	2790	1144	189	—	110	950	6	3
1785. England	131105	149577	15253	6563	8821	12889	22672	18	6¼
Scotland	1480	21640	10020	460	—	274	3848	8	10
1786. England	204160	96052	14880	10337	5494	6736	51053	17	10¾
Scotland	1305	25780	4413	478	—	—	2830	1	10
1787. England	119736	132224	14372	11007	6695	12683	55892	3	4
Scotland	798	6484	2727	558	—	—	1097	1	4¼
1788. England	82586	208638	12969	9930	4583	30929	44206	1	11¾
Buck wheat	121	—	—	—	—	—			
Indian corn	1	—	—	—	—	—			
Scotland	384	6022	1449	622	—	291	976	10	4

Table of Corn exported from England and Scotland...continued.

	Wheat and Wheat Flour.	Barley, Beer, Malt, and Meal.	Oats and Oatmeal.	Beans.	Peas.	Rye.	Bounties and Drawbacks Paid.
	Qrs.	Qrs. b.	Qrs. b.	Qrs. b.	Qrs. b.	Qrs. b.	£. s. d.
1789. England	262883	315606 0	36162 0	18500 0	9169 0	39807 0	76551 16 1¼
Scotland	5635	40059 0	6520 0	222 0	—	139 0	5999 5 0
Groats . .	—	—	12 0	—	—	—	
1790. England	24256	50579 0	13642 0	10079 0	7116 0	47 0	
	cwt. qrs. lbs. 12434 0 18	—	—	—	—	—	10173 15 2
Indian corn	5496	—	—	—	—	—	
Scotland	2390	585 0	633 0	382 0	—	—	
Groats . .	—	—	10 0	—	—	—	464 13 10¾
1791. England	66163	36799 0	15281 0	7906 0	5388 0	3528 0	
	cwt. qrs. lbs. 11834 3 7	—	—	—	—	—	7168 19 4½
Indian corn	1246	—	—	—	—	—	
Scotland	2424	5260 0	1078 0	370 0	57 0	—	
Biscuit . .	405	—	—	—	—	—	—
Groats . .	—	—	10 0	—	—	—	
1792. England	291820	44898 0	23875 0	11593 0	5551 0	16150 0	
	cwt. qrs. lbs. 11101 1 14	—	—	—	—	—	69426 0 4
Biscuit . .	48560 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	
Scotland	5773	4229 0	1479 0	63 0	82 0	—	
	cwt. qrs. lbs. 2609 0 7	—	cwt. q. lb. 525 2 3	—	—	—	
Groats . .	—	—	12 0 0	—	—	—	1039 1 3
Biscuit . .	cwt. qrs. lbs. 2232 3 0	—	—	—	—	—	
Groats . .	—	—	3 0	—	—	—	
1793. England	66622	4315 0	17023 0	8839 0	4508 0	511 0	
	cwt. 40322	—	—	—	—	—	5226 13 0
Biscuit . .	24572	—	—	—	—	—	
Scotland	654	146 0	385 0	61 0	72 0	—	
	—	—	cwt. 241	—	—	—	385 2 1½
Groats . .			3 0	—	—	—	
Biscuit . .	cwt. 1131	—	—	—	—	—	
1794. England	qrs. lbs. 75032 3	6328 7	12350 2	—	3240 2	842 3	
	cwt. qrs. lbs. 133770 2 2	—	cwt. q. lbs. 3552 3 15	—	—	—	5078 7 2
Indian corn	qrs. lbs. 1448 2	—	bolls. lbs. 87 56	—	—	—	
Scotland	1446 4	3075 0	qrs. lbs.	290 5	39 2	—	
	cwt. qrs. lbs.		1037 5	—	—	—	
	1360 2 20	—	cwt. q. lbs.	—	—	—	715 16 4
	qrs. lbs.		533 2 6	—	—	—	
Groats . .	37 2	—	—	—	—	—	

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

Table of Corn imported into England and Scotland.

	WHEAT AND WHEAT FLOUR.	RYE & RYE FLOUR.	BARLEY, BEER, AND MALT.	OATS AND OATMEAL.	BEANS.	PEAS.	DUTIES RECEIVED.		
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	£.	s.	d.
1771. England	2509	2179	228	198072	67	64	13170	2	1
Indian corn	3	—	—	—	—	—			
Scotland	2	—	—	14255	—	—	547	8	11
1772. England	23134	4799	2107	70542	469	17	2393	6	10
Indian corn	3	—	—	—	—	—			
Buck wheat	1	—	—	—	—	—			
Scotland	2340	—	961	36277	—	4	1372	14	11
Buck wheat	1	—	—	—	—	—			
1773. England	50312	9253	51221	234366	49858	3254	Duty free.		
Indian corn	6322	—	—	—	—	—			
Buck wheat	53	—	—	—	—	—			
Scotland	6545	2	12695	95088	4002	4002	Duty free.		
1774. England	269235	41427	155148	312908	16401	2780	12379	4	3
Indian corn	5945	—	—	—	—	—			
Scotland	19914	—	16360	86591	2505	2705	1336	11	8
Buck wheat	4	—	—	—	—	—			
1775. England	544641	33574	126332	283827	29862	11275	18442	18	2
Indian corn	9638	—	—	—	—	—			
Scotland	16347	—	13119	101115	1657	1658	1355	1	5
1776. England	20148	3415	8020	373707	19055	19776	3658	5	5
Scotland	430	—	479	4859	—	12	30	12	7
1777. England	233069	18454	7981	366155	35127	28702	8835	13	9
Buck wheat	10	—	—	—	—	—			
Scotland	254	—	—	291	—	—	0	14	9
1778. England	106394	9327	42514	199680	30165	27768	4890	5	7
Scotland	—	—	200	1490	—	—	14	3	9
1779. England	4611	1693	7085	332527	14591	29154	2849	18	7
Scotland	425	—	—	15984	—	—	139	18	2¼
1780. England	3040	—	352	190576	7406	17719	1067	0	11
Scotland	873	—	—	4667	—	—	60	11	0½
Biscuit . .	cwt. qrs. lbs. 284 0 17	—	—	—	—	—			
1781. England	159696	10743	56	55869	3244	14508	4275	4	9
Scotland	99	—	—	53576	—	—	447	6	3¾
Biscuit . .	cwt. qrs. lbs. 43 0 27	—	—	—	—	—			
1782. England	79779	—	11954	33758	3619	4553	2270	2	7
Scotland	916	—	1638	4804	—	386	79	14	6
1783. England	505161	74589	87884	166231	17435	1087	17062	9	2
Indian corn	2	—	—	—	—	—			
Scotland	79022	6706	57030	62711	13093	—	3547	4	3
Barley meal	—	—	12	—	—	—			
1784. England	174593	23722	43729	176413	28047	2915	7406	15	5
Indian corn	46	—	—	—	—	—			
Scotland	42354	1057	3453	90585	14854	—	2522	15	3

Table of Corn imported into England and Scotland...continued.

	Wheat and Wheat Flour.	Rye.		Barley, Beer, and Malt.		Oats and Oatmeal.		Beans.		Peas.		Duties Received.		
	Qrs.	Qrs.	b.	Qrs.	b.	Qrs.	b.	Qrs.	b.	Qrs.	b.	£.	s.	d.
1785. England	97574	28738	0	63666	0	285449	0	9355	0	6736	0	6249	15	6
Indian wheat	15	—		—		—		—		—				
Scotland	13289	23	0	3546	0	88639	0	722	0	—		1119	1	8
1786. England	51463	311	0	50143	0	412097	0	33912	0	1617	0	5556	2	9
Scotland	—	1	0	12231	0	66376	0	180	0	—		714	8	0
1787. England	49408	2702	0	17783	0	395979	0	36913	0	2267	0	5061	12	2½
Indian corn	28	—		—		—		—		—				
Scotland	9931	4352	0	25461	0	116025	0	3705	0	—		1564	7	7
1788. England	123238	—		10685	0	333139	0	9190	0	1092	0	5344	3	4
Indian corn	17	—		—		—		—		—				
Scotland	25472	—		7794	0	80687	0	619	0	—		1321	11	6
1789. England	88551	14844	0	8749	0	365967	0	162	0	99	0	4814	3	7¼
Indian corn	54	—		—		—		—		—				
Scotland	21950	—		2378	0	63754	0	130	0	—		1334	1	9
1790. England	174534	21683	0	24267	0	622566	0	39446	0	3548	0			
	cwt. qrs. lbs. 65862 0 12	—		—		—		—		—		10856	17	3
Indian corn	10546	—		—		—		—		—				
Scotland	25374	—		5850	0	112607	0	192	0	—		1630	6	2½
1791. England	357999	56124	0	43718	0	638968	0	12615	0	1939	0			
	cwt. qrs. lbs. 113258 1 7	—		—		—		—		—		15561	18	0
Indian corn	1240	—		—		—		—		—				
Scotland	72798	254	0	17417	0	151585	0	127	0	45	0			
	cwt. qrs. lbs. 1517 3 25	—		—		—		—		—		3248	3	5
1792. England	17515	13026	0	87915	0	818670	0	38451	0	4800	0			
	cwt. qrs. lbs. 7756 3 6	—		—		—		—		—		18284	12	10
Indian corn	5677	—		—		—		—		—				
Scotland	2676	—		30610	0	189729	0	—		6	0	6327	16	4
1793. England	400458	55118	0	117439	0	587043	0	29270	0	15847	0			
	cwt. 213671	—		—		bolls. 7523		—		—		19892	11	5
Indian corn	2	—		—		—		—		—				
Scotland	5723	5	0	29878	0	112416	0	450	0	2705	0			
	cwt. 49	—		—		bolls. 21474		—		—		1821	15	8¾
1794. England	175021 6*b.*	20895	2	119289	1	813814	7	89899	0	39490	6			
	cwt. qrs. lbs. 11103 0 3	—		—		bolls. lbs. 7 61		—		—		13881	5	2
Indian corn	151 6*b.*	—		—		—		—		—				
Scotland	20209 5*b.*	1	2	6466	5	73692	2	313	5	298	1			
	cwt. qrs. lbs. 13 2 20	—		—		—		—		—		2800	19	9¾
Buck wheat	8 *qrs.*	—		—		—		—		—				

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

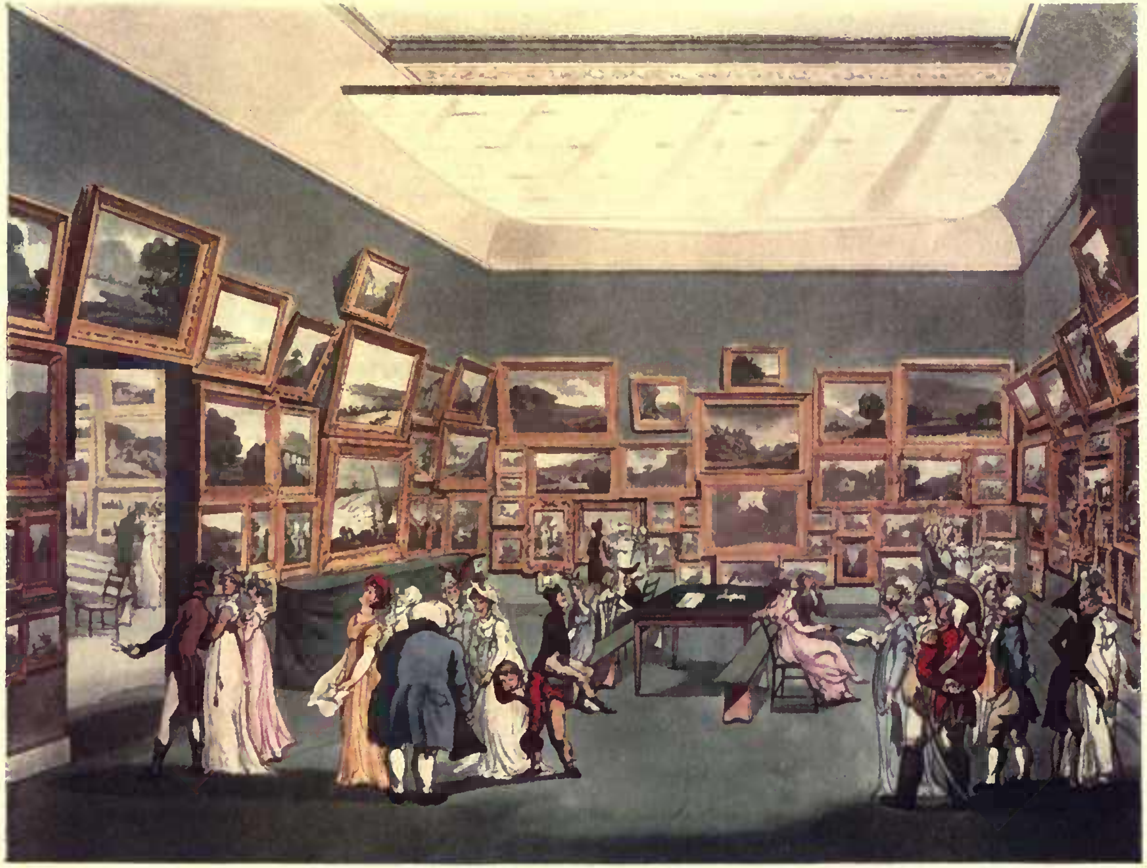
The following is an account of the average price of Corn in England and Wales, by the standard Winchester bushel, from the commencement of the Corn Register Act in the year 1770.

	WHEAT.		RYE.		BARLEY.		OATS.		BEANS.	
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
1771	5	10¾	4	3½	3	2½	2	1	3	6¾
1772	6	4	4	7	3	2	2	0¼	3	9
1773	6	4½	4	2	3	6½	2	1¼	4	1½
1774	6	7	4	3½	3	6¾	2	2¾	3	10¾
1775	6	0½	4	1¼	3	3	2	0¾	3	7
1776	4	9¼	3	4¼	2	6¼	1	10½	3	3¾
1777	5	8¼	3	6	2	6¾	1	11½	3	6¾
1778	5	3	3	6½	2	10	1	10¾	3	5½
1779	4	2½	2	11	2	5¼	1	9	3	0¼
1780	4	5½	2	9¼	2	1½	1	7¼	2	9¼
1781	5	7	3	4¼	2	1¾	1	8½	2	10½
1782	5	11¾	3	7¼	2	9¾	1	10¾	3	3
1783	6	7	4	5½	3	9½	2	5¾	4	4¼
1784	6	1¼	4	0¼	3	5¾	2	3½	4	0¼
1785	5	2¾	3	6	3	0	2	1¾	3	10
1786	4	10¼	3	4¾	3	0½	2	3	4	1¾
1787	5	1¾	3	5½	2	10	2	1	3	11¾
1788	5	7½	3	5½	2	9	1	11½	3	4¾
1789	6	4¾	3	8¾	2	10¼	2	0	3	4¾
1790	6	7¾	4	3	3	2	2	4	3	10
1791	5	10½	3	11	3	2¾	2	3¼	3	9¾
1792	5	3½	3	10¼	3	4	2	3¼	3	11
1793	6	0½	4	4¼	3	11½	2	8¾	4	8
1794	6	4½	0	0	4	0½	2	7¾	5	2½
1795	9	2¾	0	0	4	8	0	0	0	0
1796	9	7½	0	0	4	5¼	2	8½	4	10
1797	6	6	0	0	3	6	2	1	3	3
1798	6	2½	0	0	3	7	2	5	3	9
1799	8	5	0	0	4	5½	3	5	5	6½
1800	14	1	0	0	7	6	5	2	8	7

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

The great increase of business at Bear Quay, and the inconvenience which necessarily attended its transactions, from want of room, and a proper situation for the factors and dealers who attended the market, induced a number of corn-factors to propose building, about the year 1750, an Exchange for their own use. A plan was soon arranged, the money raised by a subscription (which was divided into eighty shares), and the present building soon afterwards erected, which has since been appropriated to the corn and seed trade, but principally to the former. The proprietors delegate the powers of management to a committee, of whom it is necessary there should be five present to form an efficient meeting. The shares are at present worth something more than five hundred pounds. The income of this proprietary is derived from letting the stands, or small boxes, to the different factors and dealers, who pay about ten guineas per annum: the number of these boxes is about sixty-four, and they are usually in great request. Indeed the increase of this trade has been such within the period of a few years, that the seed trade could not be accommodated with sufficient conveniences at this market; in consequence of which another Exchange has been erected, nearly opposite to the old one, in Mark-lane, by a spirited individual (Mr. Bryan Cocoran), which is distinguished by the title of the *New Seed and Corn Market.*

Prior to the establishment of the latter, the seedsmen had no stands. There is nothing particular in the architecture or plan of this market; convenience and simplicity seem principally to have been studied. It is entirely covered, and lighted by a large skylight, and is in other respects extremely well calculated for the intended purpose. There are fifty boxes or stands, which



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt. et sculpt.

EXHIBITION OF WATER COLOURED DRAWINGS,
OLD BOND STREET.

let from fourteen to twenty guineas per annum, and amply remunerate the proprietor for the expence of completing this useful undertaking.

It was opened on the 16th September, 1804.

There is a duty of two-pence per last paid to the city for all corn sold in the Exchange, upon the first sale.

EXHIBITION OF THE SOCIETY OF PAINTERS IN WATER COLOURS,

ESTABLISHED IN NOVEMBER, 1804,

Now in Bond-Street

IT has been observed by foreign writers upon the polite arts, that so long as the impulse of religious enthusiasm to excite emulation among artists, and a taste for decorating sacred edifices with their productions, are wanting, so long will a school of painting be wanted in England.

The Abbé Winkelmann, in his *History of Arts among the Ancients*, (tom. i. sect. 2.) treating of the influence of climate upon the disposition of a people so far as it respects the arts, says, that owing to the absence of this disposition and the effect of climate, the English have never yet had a single painter of eminence. The French, he says, are in the same predicament (excepting only two painters, one of whom is Poussin), notwithstanding the great sums which have been expended, and the endeavours they have used to obtain perfection. The fallacy of this reasoning has been abundantly proved by the progressive improvement which has taken place among the artists who have flourished in these kingdoms since the period at which this was written (about the year 1770): at the same time, we cannot discover any considerable alteration in the sentiments of the nation in general as to the propriety of ornamenting our churches with paintings; nor have we experienced any considerable amelioration of the climate, that can justify this improvement upon the principles laid down by the learned abbé. We can more readily account for, by ascribing it to that taste for paintings which has been disseminated through this country by the great accession of wealth, which, introducing luxury, creates new sources for its own gratification, and is the effect as well as the cause of refinement.*

Extract of a letter from GESNER *to his son, then on his travels at Rome.*

* "At Rome, no doubt, the wonders of art, the beauties of nature, every thing, in short, is calculated to excite enthusiasm, and develop the mind: but look over the history of artists in former centuries; observe also those painters who are still living, who have raised themselves to superior eminence; collect all those of different nations, who, like you, aspire to reach that goal which our predecessors have attained, and who approach it with hasty strides, and learn from them with what *continued efforts and unremitted labour that artist must pursue his profession who aims at perfection.* You will doubtless occasionally meet with some fiery spirits, who only advance by sudden leaps, whose vanity will not submit to a regular, though troublesome progress; but you will always observe, *that by deviating from the right path, they get further from the object, instead of approaching it.*

"Lose no time in beginning your studies, and let the principal one be that of the human figure, under its most beautiful form; bestow particular attention also on the *harmony, truth,* and *delicacy* of colouring; copy detached groups, single figures, and sometimes even parts of figures: but in these different studies always proceed with

All the arts which have drawing for their common basis, were cultivated in England during the middle ages with a superiority and success, to which the writers of those times bear ample testimony. The discoveries which took place when the alteration was made in St. Stephen's Chapel, prove something more than was even suspected of their merit at a period long before the supposed invention of painting in oil by Van Eych. Leo of Ostia, in his *Chronicle of Mount Cassin*, written early in the twelfth century (book II. chap. xxxiv.), speaks of a shrine which made part of the treasure of that monastery.—"*Loculus iste mirificus argento, auro, gemmisque*, Anglico opere subtiliter *ac* pulcherimè *decoratus*."

The book of the *Anniversaries of the Vatican Basilica*, page 345, mentions five suits of silver embroidery, of which three were *de opere Cypriensi, et unum de opere Anglicano.* If the treasures of these monasteries and basilicas, which preserved the most precious remains of antiquity, and which, at the revival of the arts, furnished their first models, were thought to be honoured by the works of English artists, we may fairly presume that these performances struck the eye from their

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unremitting diligence and scrupulous exactness. In a word, exert yourself to the utmost, for you have no time to lose."

This advice, so necessary to be impressed upon the mind of every young artist, seems to have been thrown away upon young Gesner; his studies were of the most desultory nature, and his success was, as might be expected, in a proportionate ratio. He was one of those fiery spirits that would not submit to a regular, though troublesome progress: this will be evident from the inspection of a work published by the proprietor of the *Microcosm* a few years since, when C. Gesner was in London, under the title of "*Military Evolutions*," which bears unequivocal marks of extraordinary genius without the necessary attention to labour and study.

superior fineness, brilliancy, or that elegance of execution which at the present period continues so decidedly to characterize the works of this nation. Even the partial writer of the exploits of William the Conqueror, bears testimony to the skill of the English women, and the general excellence of the English artists.—"*Anglicæ nationis fœminæ multum acer et auri textura,* egregiè viri in omni valent artificio."

The ornamental splendour of the Romish religion was supposed to be subservient in some degree to the improvement of painting during the time it existed as the national religion: on the other hand, it is said, the simplicity which characterizes the Protestant faith gives little employment or encouragement to the professors of this art. It is true, the fanaticism of the Independents banished paintings altogether, even upon glass, from the churches where they had survived the rude hands of the Reformers. More liberal ideas have since prevailed; the decoration of sacred edifices seems to be less violently opposed by fanaticism, and it has ceased to be considered as a breach of the second commandment. There is certainly no ground for supposing the respect that may be paid in this country to such ornaments, will exceed the admiration which is usually excited by an inspection of the exquisite performances of our most eminent artists.

One of the most formidable obstacles to the improvement of painting (at least in the higher departments), was the great encouragement given to portrait-painting, which, from the revival of this art about the time of Charles II. to the accession of George III. was almost exclusively patronised and rewarded. This may be owing, in some measure, to the personal vanity of individuals, and the disposition of artists to make their works a source of profit rather than fame, which led them to cultivate a branch of their profession that returned their assiduities with emolument, instead of embodying upon their canvass the splendid achievements which confer immortality upon those who have performed, and almost equal honour upon those who record them in representations executed with taste, spirit, and expression.

Whilst artists are content with that remuneration which portrait-painting affords, we shall in vain look for the sublime features of bold composition, or the imposing graces of chaste and decided elegance.

But wealth, the parent of luxury, introduces refinement, which, whatever may be its effect upon the morals of a people, generally contributes to the promotion of the fine arts, by the encouragement which it affords; this excites competition, which can alone produce excellence. The establishment of the Royal Academy afforded the opportunity of a more general acquaintance with the arts in this country, and the annual exhibitions were not only a spur to the artists, but soon became a medium through which a more extensive taste for its productions was excited and encouraged. It is not wonderful, that, in a commercial country like Great Britain, even this exhibition should be associated with the idea of making it a source of profit as well as honour.

At the commencement of this æra (for so it may be considered with respect to the English school), the state of painting in water colours was certainly at a very low ebb, and might perhaps have justified a law of the society, which excluded from academic honours those painters who exhibited works in water colours only. In the present state of this branch of the art, it may be worth while to consider, whether the reasons which prevailed at the period to which we allude, are still in existence. We are the more inclined to press this subject upon the consideration of the parties concerned, when we recollect, that some of the most eminent of the academy owe no small portion of their celebrity to performances in water colours.

In the annual exhibition at Somerset-House, it is well known that the best room (indeed the only one calculated to exhibit a numerous assemblage of paintings,) is solely appropriated for pictures in oil. If this had been the only circumstance by which the professors of this department had felt themselves aggrieved, their complaints might have been considered as unreasonable; but, besides that their works were disposed in the smaller rooms, they often suffered by an arrangement (over which they had no controul, and in which they were thus excluded any participation,) that brought their pictures in contact with many oil paintings, which either want of space or influence had likewise driven from the great room. It is almost unnecessary to mention the obvious disadvantage which must attend paintings in water colours exhibited under such circumstances. It cannot escape the most careless observer, that a painting, unavoidably circumscribed by the size and expence of the glass, the materials of which it is composed not admitting of that depth of shade, or force of colouring, which produces effect at a certain distance, and a considerable portion of whose beauty is derived from a minute attention to parts, accuracy of delineation, and a combination of latent excellences, that require to be investigated before they are enjoyed, must suffer considerably in the estimation even of good judges, when opposed to half an acre of canvass, covered with the strongest tints, enriched with the most gaudy colours, and glazed with a varnish calculated to heighten the already too powerful effect. We are informed, that artists who have finished even oil paintings of considerable merit, and sent them to the exhibition, having discovered that they were placed in so dangerous and offensive a neighbourhood, have been obliged to retouch their pictures, and "*give a browner horror to the shade*," merely to counteract the effect of this juxtaposition.

The great assemblage of *chefs d'œuvre* being always looked for in the principal room, was likewise calculated to excite a degree of prejudice in the minds of the less enlightened, against works of a description invariably excluded from the place of honour. We do not mean to insinuate, that influence has any share in determining the situation where the paintings are respectively placed, although we have certainly observed works of the greatest merit find their way to the inferior rooms.

We can fairly suppose, that considerations such as these may have influenced the persons who proposed the original design of the present establishment; in addition to which, without any reflection upon the artists, we may suppose the possibility of deriving some profit from the exhibition of their works, after defraying the expences of the establishment, to have had its particular influence. The circumstance of exhibiting their works to greater advantage, and thereby increasing the facility of sale by such arrangements as the first page of their catalogue announces, has, we are given to understand, been attended with a success beyond the most sanguine expectation of the artists concerned.

Among the rewards which have attended these exertions (we include the result of their four exhibitions in the years 1805–6–7–8), perhaps we ought not to reckon as the least flattering, those expressions of almost involuntary surprise and satisfaction with which foreigners have accompanied their view of works produced by materials hitherto considered as insufficient to produce a picture. But the patronage of the rich and the liberal has been extended in a more substantial manner; the sums they have given for many of the works exhibited by this society, rival the prices paid for any other kind of paintings.

We have been favoured by one of the members with a general outline of the constitution of this society.—Its affairs are under the management of a president, treasurer, secretary, and committee, who are chosen annually by ballot. Every member usually resident within a certain distance of town, is eligible, though the first three officers may be re-elected from year to year. The two junior members of the committee relinquish their seats at every anniversary, in order to make way for two others, and cannot again be elected till every other eligible member has served. The present members are,

Mr. J. Glover, President. Mr. R. R. Reinagle, Treasurer. Mr. R. Hills, Secretary.

Mr. G. Barrett.
J. J. Chalon.
J. Christall.
W. S. Gilpin.
Mr. W. Havell.
T. Heaphy.
J. Holworthy.
F. Nicholson.
Mr. N. Pocock.
W. H. Pyne.
S. Rigaud.
S. Shelley.
Mr. J. Smith.
J. Varley.
C. Varley.
W. F. Wells.

ASSOCIATE EXHIBITORS.

Miss Byrne.
Mr. J. A. Atkinson.
Mr. W. Delamotte.
P. S. Munn.
Mr. A. Pugin.
F. Stevens.
Mr. W. Turner.

The society, when its number is completed, will consist of twenty-four members and twelve associate exhibitors: these last stand in the same sort of relative situation with the members, that the associates of the Royal Academy do with the academicians.

They have no share in the management of the society's concerns, nor in the profits of the exhibition, but they are never called on to contribute to any of the expences; their works have the same chance of sale with those of the members, and from this list, as vacancies occur, the new members are always elected.

Every candidate for associate exhibitorship must be proposed by a member, and a majority of two thirds of the members present at the ballot, is necessary for the election of the candidate.

They reserve the power, as in most other societies, of expelling obnoxious members; but this can never be done except by the concurring votes, by ballot, of at least three fourths of the members.

The profits of the exhibition, after the payment of contingent expences, are divided into as many shares as there are members, each member's share being proportioned to the aggregate value of his works.

Ladies associate exhibitors, as they can never share actively in the management of the society's affairs, are not eligible as members; but from the moment of their election, they become entitled to partake of the *profits* of the exhibition in the same proportion as the members, while they are exempt from the trouble of official duties, and from every responsibility whatever on account of any *losses* incurred by the society.

If the object of this exhibition had merely been to promote the cultivation of this particular branch of the art, or if this object had been simply connected with another (which seems very fairly to have arisen out of the preceding), namely, the making it a source of profit to the artists concerned, we should have been inclined to recommend a plan more extensive in its nature, and more liberal in its arrangements, and we think as likely to have answered as well, if not better, even in these points: for it appears to us, that however convenient it may have been to restrict the number of persons who should compose the society originally, or to limit at a subsequent period the number who should derive benefit from the exhibition; yet we cannot discover upon what principle other artists of great eminence and respectability have been prevented from exhibiting their works, who did not wish to derive any advantage from the institution beyond the means which it afforded of shewing their performances to the public, and thereby increasing the opportunities of selling them. We can readily conceive, that when such an arrangement was first proposed, many artists who were less sanguine in their dispositions than the original projectors, might hesitate to come forward and engage in an undertaking, the expence of which was certain, whilst its success was doubtful; but when the approbation of the public had sanctioned the plan, and there was great probability of its continuing to merit that approbation, we think it would have been judicious to have admitted a greater number of members, or at least to have opened their doors to a greater number of exhibitors. The public must be fed with variety as well as excellence; and the limited number of artists who compose this society, notwithstanding the utmost exertions of their talents and industry united, cannot be expected to compete with success, for any long period, with other societies who increase the number of their exhibitors by a more enlarged plan. The effect of this has been already felt, and a society upon a more comprehensive scale has been formed in the spring of the present year, under the title of *Associated Artists in Water Colours.* Their first exhibition was held at the great rooms No. 20, Lower Brook-street, Grosvenor-square, and met with encouragement similar to that which the prior establishment had experienced.

The laws of this society do not limit the number of its members, which is proposed to be increased by those among the associate exhibitors whose works are most conspicuous. Performances in miniature form a distinguished part in the catalogue of their works; and ladies are admitted members, who are entitled to a vote on all occasions, which vote may be given in writing. Its laws in other respects are very similar to those of the other society. The members are,

Mr. W. Wood, President. Mr. J. Green, Treasurer. Mr. J. Papworth, Secretary.

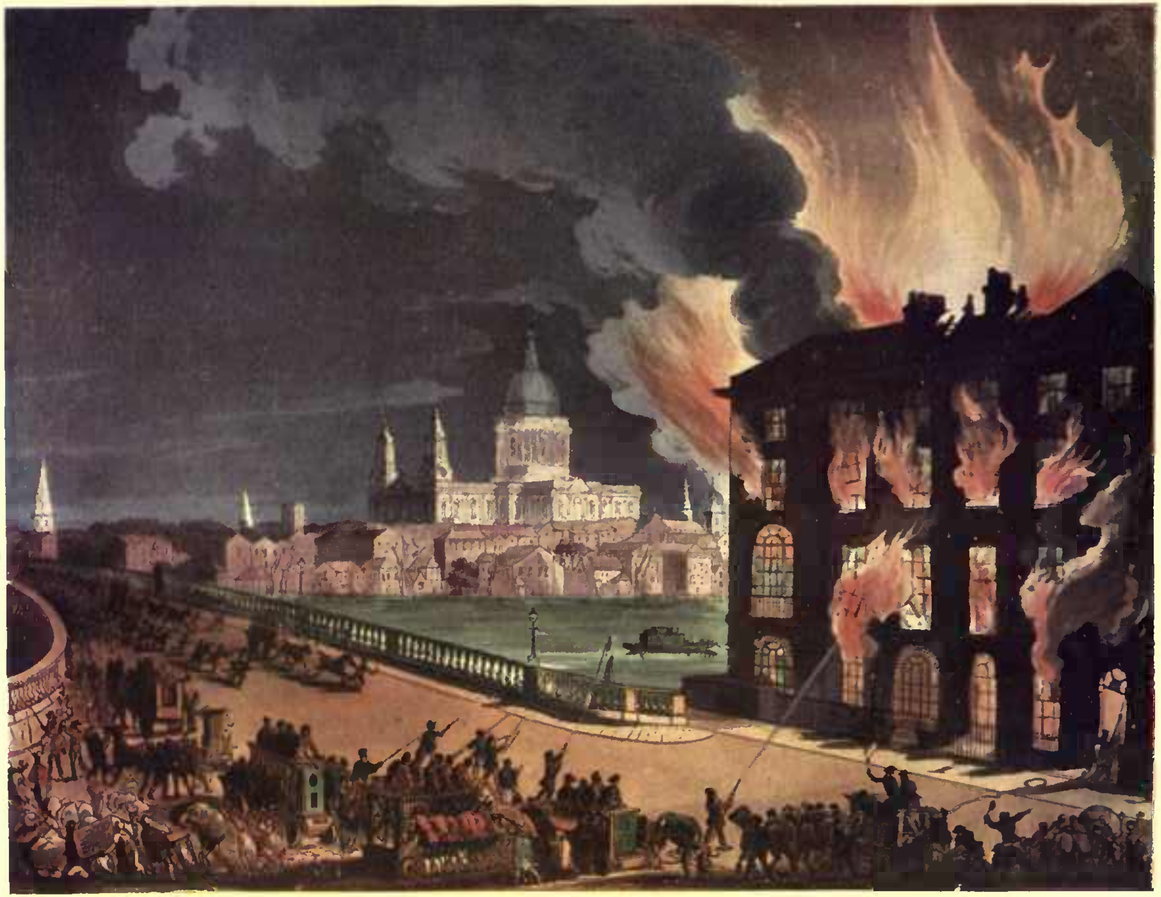
Mr. W. S. Bennett.
P. Dewint.
Mrs. Green.
Mr. Huet Villiers.
Mr. J. Holmes.
J. Laporte.
S. Owen.
F. Nash.
Mr. A. Robertson.
C. Smith.
Miss E. Smith.
Mr. W. J. Thompson.
Mr. W. Walker.
W. Westall.
H. W. Williams.
A. Wilson.

Many artists of great merit in the country, whose works might have been otherwise confined to the small circle of their friends and acquaintance, or whose merits could not be fairly appreciated at a great distance from the capital, will now be able to call the public attention to their paintings; and the man of taste and fortune will have the opportunity of drawing forth modest genius from obscurity, and of gratifying those exquisite feelings which accompany the pleasure of encouraging and rewarding indigent merit. In every point of view the public are benefitted by this rivalship, and are certainly much indebted to the spirit of the first projectors, for a plan which is likely to prove ultimately beneficial to the artists and to the country.

FIRE IN LONDON

THE print is intended to represent the dreadful fire which took place on the 3d March, 1791, at the Albion Mills, on the Surry side of Blackfriars bridge. We have selected this from the many objects of a similar nature which frequently occur in this great metropolis, because the representation afforded an opportunity of more picturesque effect; the termination of the bridge, the extensive area in front, and St. Paul's in the back ground, contribute so many interesting parts to a representation which is altogether great and awful.

This fire raged with such unabating fury, that in about half an hour the whole of that extensive edifice, together with an immense quantity of flour and grain, was reduced to ashes; the corner wing, occupied as the house and offices of the superintendent, only escaping the sad calamity, from the thickness of the party-wall. It was low water at the time the fire was first discovered, and before the engines were collected, their assistance was ineffectual; for the flames burst out in so many different directions, and with such incredible fury and intolerable heat,



Pugin & Rowlan [illegible]

FIRE IN LONDON.

that it was impossible to approach on any side, till the roof and interior part of the building tumbling in, completed the general conflagration in a column of fire so awfully grand, as to illuminate for a while the whole horizon. The wind being easterly, the flames were blown across Albion-place, the houses on the west side of which were considerably scorched, and the inhabitants greatly alarmed. In the lane adjoining the mills, one house was burnt to the ground, and others considerably damaged.

Fortunately no lives were lost, but the property consumed was very great; four thousand sacks of corn were on the premises, of which only thirty were not destroyed.

The property was insured as follows:

At the Hand-in-Hand	£.6000	Brought forward	£.21000
Sun	5000	At the Royal Exchange	5000
Phœnix	5000	On Stock	15000
Union	5000		41000
Carried over	21000		

But the largest insurance was at Lloyd's, to the amount of 20,000*l.*

In a political sense, there is no country upon earth where the security for life and property is so complete and extensive as in Great Britain, and of the peculiar facility with which property of all kinds, from the most trifling to the most extensive, is insured against fire, foreigners can form but a very inadequate idea from any establishments of this nature in their own country. That our readers may form some idea of the extent of the insurance business, and its progressive increase, in this country, we have subjoined a table of the duties paid by the respective companies since the year 1782.

Account of Duty received on Insurances by the several FIRE-OFFICES *of* LONDON *and* WESTMINSTER, *from the Commencement, Midsummer* 1782, *to Christmas* 1807.

YEARS.	SUN.			PHŒNIX.			ROYAL EXCHANGE.			HAND-IN-HAND.			WESTMINSTER.			LONDON ASSURANCE.			UNION.		
	£.	*s.*	*d.*	*£.*	*s.*	*d.*	*£.*	*s.*	*d.*	*£.*	*s.*	*d.*	*£.*	*s.*	*d.*	*£.*	*s.*	*d.*	*£.*	*s.*	*d.*
1782	28517	7	8	585	2	1	6461	14	9	11763	3	6	4250	4	1	3361	9	8	2959	15	2
1783	59032	19	6	2943	0	10	11977	16	11	17300	13	4	8790	14	5	4442	1	7	6058	0	8
1784	47451	1	10	4125	3	4	9991	10	11	11795	18	5	7633	4	7	3012	2	11	5503	15	0
1785	51486	13	11	6550	15	9	11340	19	2	10409	18	7	7729	2	7	3170	19	3	4679	9	5
1786	48067	2	10	8925	10	1	12125	7	1	9400	8	8	7368	3	4	3128	12	10	4163	15	8
1787	48656	7	1	11710	7	0	13299	19	2	8463	3	10	7246	11	4	2901	14	6	3819	7	5
1788	49520	16	9	14707	8	7	13673	7	3	8019	5	6	7030	15	7	2996	16	0	3240	15	6
1789	49529	2	4	17035	1	4	14703	9	10	7698	1	2	6633	5	0	2991	1	8	2891	19	2
1790	51388	13	7	18598	2	10	16057	19	3	8231	18	4	6701	19	0	3012	12	3	2556	10	8
1791	53572	11	4	20197	4	0	16388	10	0	8229	10	7	6831	3	11	3215	11	4	2640	12	7
1792	56640	18	8	24655	4	2	20050	3	3	8591	0	1	7088	16	7	3206	13	11	2451	3	0
1793	56704	1	5	25921	9	8	20299	12	6	7577	19	9	6178	14	0	3285	3	3	2309	11	0
1794	57629	17	9	27781	13	1	20742	1	8	7050	18	4	6583	0	11	3096	8	1	2136	13	8
1795	58559	7	9	28780	3	4	22773	3	8	6824	13	6	6291	9	10	3268	11	4	2154	1	1
1796	59511	3	9	30978	16	7	22701	17	4	6488	1	0	5759	7	0	3355	4	6	1723	18	2
1797	64245	9	10	34405	15	6	26845	12	8	10051	17	5	7921	17	9	4166	0	11	2474	2	8
1798	82690	3	6	44881	2	1	32450	10	7	10661	11	2	9816	19	2	5579	14	4	2859	7	7
1799	77065	0	7	43691	3	0	33058	3	6	8384	6	11	8441	14	6	4944	15	9	1984	1	5
1800	77628	4	1	48025	17	11	35475	19	0	8564	3	5	7557	13	5	5297	2	9	2472	1	0
1801	80314	6	4	51365	4	5	36729	6	10	7951	11	8	7524	18	6	5677	7	10	2073	6	3
1802	81705	11	11	49954	0	10	37710	17	6	7665	3	2	7907	13	7	5933	18	10	2582	19	6
1803	77589	8	3	50556	19	4	37844	1	7	7961	3	11	8251	2	9	5102	10	4	2035	13	0
1804	80205	3	5	49533	17	3	38182	11	5	9069	14	2	8670	12	3	4715	15	6	2210	12	8
1805	92845	3	11	59162	3	10	44095	13	3	12120	11	3	12277	13	3	6210	3	5	4783	3	1
1806	95269	8	8	60767	10	2	44973	13	11	9728	6	1	10602	3	5	6117	18	0	5399	4	4
1807	92443	6	2	61765	2	5	45067	16	5	9940	0	2	10525	10	0	6852	6	2	5697	10	3

YEARS.	BRITISH.			IMPERIAL.			GLOBE.			COUNTY.			HOPE.			ATLAS.			ALBION.	EAGLE.
	£.	*s.*	*d.*	*£.*	*s.*	*d.*	*£.*	*s.*	*d.*	*£.*	*s.*	*d.*	*£.*	*s.*	*d.*	*£.*	*s.*	*d.*		
1799	5319	9	11	—			—			—			—			—			—	—
1800	10651	12	5	—			—			—			—			—			—	—
1801	13848	3	3	—			—			—			—			—			—	—
1802	17364	12	2	—			—			—			—			—			—	—
1803	16814	4	4	7624	11	10	3726	17	9	—			—			—			—	—
1804	16691	0	0	14626	19	5	11943	15	11	—			—			—			—	—
1805	18744	2	6	23141	5	11	17248	10	2	1675	3	1	—			—			—	—
1806	19731	16	8	27731	17	8	19738	8	1	8179	1	4	—			—			—	—
1807	20281	10	11	30018	8	4	20465	19	2	11192	10	8	3031	2	11	1631	11	9	—	—

With respect to the terms* of each office, we may observe generally, that insurances can be effected upon the same terms at either of them; the only distinction that we are aware of is, that in some offices, out of the profits arising from the general business, a fund is created, of which the insurers themselves become entitled to a dividend, in proportion to the amount of the premiums they have paid, after a certain period. So long as the business of the offices is carried on with prudence, and therefore with success, this plan operates in reduction of such premiums; but should loss to any considerable amount take place beyond the capital retained to answer such events, it has the effect of involving a general partnership of the insurers, who become (of course) liable to a mutual contribution to make up any deficiency.

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* *Terms of Insurance of Buildings, Farming Stock, Shipping, and all other Property, from Loss or Damage by Fire.*

COMMON INSURANCES.—Brick or stone buildings, with party-walls, covered with slate, tile, or metal, in which no hazardous trades are carried on, or hazardous goods deposited.

Goods not hazardous.—Goods not hazardous in brick or stone buildings, with party-walls, covered with slate, tile, or metal, in which no hazardous trades are carried on. Wearing apparel, linen, printed books, plate, and liquors in private use, may be insured under the general description or denomination of *furniture*, without a specification of each. Watches, jewels, and trinkets, in private use, must be separately described, but the premium on them does not exceed the premium on goods not hazardous.

HAZARDOUS INSURANCES.—Timber or plaster buildings, brick and timber buildings, and buildings without party-walls of stone or brick, covered with slate, tile, or metal, in which no hazardous trades are carried on, or hazardous goods deposited. Brick or stone buildings, in which hazardous trades are carried on. Thatched buildings not having a chimney, and not adjoining to any building having a chimney.

Hazardous Goods.—Goods not hazardous deposited in hazardous buildings. The stock of hazardous trades in brick or stone buildings. Pictures, horses, harness, carriages, and fodder, in buildings not hazardous. Ships in port, and their cargoes, ships building or repairing, barges, and other small craft, on rivers and canals, and goods on board.

DOUBLY HAZARDOUS INSURANCES.—Hazardous buildings, in which hazardous trades are carried on. Thatched buildings having a chimney, or adjoining to a building containing one.

Doubly hazardous Goods.—The stock of hazardous trades in hazardous buildings. Pictures, horses, carriages, and fodder, in hazardous buildings. China and glass.

Upon *common insurances* is charged an annual premium of 2s. per cent.—*hazardous insurances*, 3s. per cent.—and *doubly hazardous insurances*, 5s. per cent.

Other offices, again, are entitled by charters to be called upon for losses to no greater extent than the sum originally pledged as capital.

Others, again, are formed by a subscription for shares, extending to a certain sum only, and the parties are mutually bound to contribute in proportion to the number of shares they hold; but in the event before supposed, this agreement among themselves does not deprive the public who insure at such offices, of the right to call upon the proprietor even of a single share for the whole amount of their loss, in case the capital subscribed should be insufficient.

It is very far from our intention by this statement to insinuate any thing to the prejudice of offices formed upon this plan, but state it, because a contrary opinion respecting joint-stock companies has pretty generally prevailed; and although from institutions of this nature very distant indeed must be any such apprehension, yet the ephemeral establishments which we hear every day proposed, and respecting which the public cannot be too cautious, incline us to be among the number of those who are desirous of putting them upon their guard against speculations of so doubtful, and, it would appear, of so dangerous a nature.—We subjoin a list of fires within the bills of mortality during the year 1807, which affords the strongest proof of the necessity and advantage of these establishments.

1807.	*Fires.*	*Chimney Alarms.*
January	42	48
February	38	54
March	36	42
April	32	36
May	29	22
June	16	15
Carried over	193	217

1807.	*Fires.*	*Chimney Alarms.*
Brought forward	193	217
July	37	20
August	28	15
September	28	17
October	24	23
November	29	21
December	36	43
	375	356

The number of *fires* may be considered nearly correct, but the *chimney alarms* are not probably more than a third of the true number.

The above statement is given from the books of the *British Fire-Office*, for the year ending December 31, 1807.

B. F. O. August 13, 1808. WILLIAM KING, Inspector.

To extinguish fires with a greater expedition than by the means usually employed, has long been a desideratum with the public, and persons of considerable talents, in various parts, have directed their attention to this object. Zachary Greyl was the first whose projects for this purpose were attended with any success. He contrived an engine of sufficient power, and managed without much difficulty, with which he extinguished the fire in buildings (to the satisfaction of many respectable persons of the first rank who attended the experiment), by means of explosion; and he offered to make the secret public, in consideration of a considerable sum of money, for which he stipulated: but this proposal was not attended with any success, and he died without disclosing it. A short time after his death, the method was discovered by a person who had possessed himself of Greyl's papers. The plan was tried before the King of Poland, and a considerable number of the nobility, at Dresden, and the secret was purchased for a large sum. It was afterwards tried at Paris, and at several other places. The process was simple: a vessel was provided large enough to contain a considerable quantity of water, in the middle of which an iron case was placed, filled with gunpowder, and properly secured against wet, from which a tube communicated (through the head of the vessel) with a match made of materials easily combustible. This vessel was to be conveyed into the building on fire: the consequence was, that the explosion occasioned by the gunpowder, drove the water with considerable force every way, and although the room might be flaming in every part at the instant of its going off, the fire was immediately extinguished. But although great expectations were formed, yet the benefit was by no means general; the fire in a room was easily put out, but when the roof had fallen in, or the flames had communicated very far, or the top was open, it must be obvious this plan could not succeed.

Chimneys on fire are readily extinguished by completely stopping up the throat or breast of the chimney with a wet blanket, or by means of a register or chimney-board, or indeed any thing which will entirely prevent the current of air passing upwards.

Various plans have likewise been suggested with the view to check the progress of fire. Dr. Hales proposed to stop it by covering the floors of the adjoining rooms with earth about an inch thick. In the years 1775 and 1776, Mr. David Hartley made several experiments to prove the efficacy of a plan which he had invented, and for which he obtained a patent, and Parliament voted a certain sum to defray the expence of the numerous experiments which were made with a view to restrain the spread of fire in buildings. For this purpose thin iron plates were well nailed to the top of the joists, &c. the edges of the sides and ends being lapped over, folded together, and hammered close. Partitions, stairs, and doors, have been defended in the same manner, and plates applied to one side have been found sufficient. The plates are so thin as not to prevent the floor from being nailed on the joists, in the same manner as if this preventive had not been employed. The plates are kept from rust by being painted, or varnished with oil and turpentine. The expence of this addition, when extended through a whole building, does not exceed 5 per cent. This patent has long since expired. The same preventive may be applied to ships, and to many of the machines employed in our manufactories.*

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* The Earl of Stanhope also discovered and published a very simple and effectual method of securing every kind of building against fire. This method he has divided into three parts, viz. under-flooring, extra-lathing, and inter-securing. The method of under-flooring is either single or double. In single under-flooring, a common strong lath of oak or fir, about one fourth of an inch thick, should be nailed against each side of every joist, and of every main timber supporting the floor which is to be secured; other similar laths are then to be nailed along the whole length of the joists, with their ends butting against each other. The top of each of these laths or fillets ought to be at one inch and a half below the top of the joists or timbers against which they are nailed, and they will thus form a sort of small ledge on each side of the joists. These fillets are to be well bedded in a rough plaster hereafter mentioned, when they are nailed on, so

FLEET PRISON

THE Fleet Prison is situated on the east side of Fleet market, a little to the south of Fleet-lane, and was originally so called from the river Fleet running by it. It was destroyed in the riots of 1780, and was immediately

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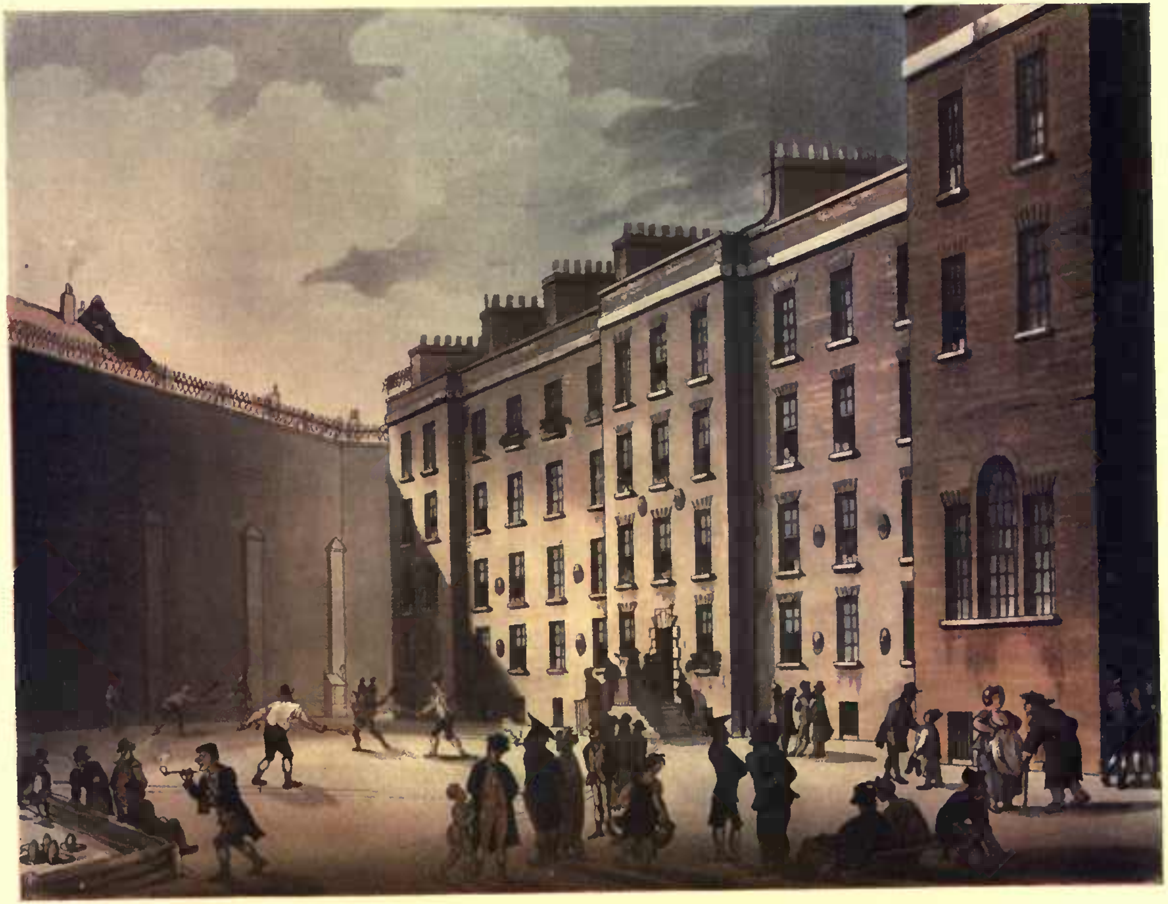
that there may be no interval between them and the joists; and the same plaster ought to be spread with a trowel upon the tops of all the fillets, and along the sides of that part of the joists which is between the top of the fillets and the upper edge of the joists. In order to fill up the intervals between the joists that support the floor, short pieces of common lath, whose lengths are equal to the width of these intervals, should be laid in the contrary direction to the joists, and close together in a row, so as to touch one another; their ends must rest upon the fillets, and they ought to be well bedded in the rough plaster, but are not to be fastened with nails. They must then be covered with one thick coat of the rough plaster, which is to be spread over them to the level of the tops of the joists, and in a day or two this plaster should be trowelled over close to the sides of the joists, without covering the tops of the joists with it.—In the method of double-flooring, the fillets and short pieces of laths are applied in the manner already described; but the coat of rough plaster ought to be little more than half as thick as that in the former method. Whilst this rough plaster is laid on, some more of the short pieces of laths above-mentioned must be laid in the intervals between the joists upon the first coat, and be dipped deep in it; they should be laid as close as possible to each other, and in the same direction with the first layer of short laths. Over this second layer of short laths there must be spread another coat of rough plaster, which should be trowelled level with the tops of the joists, without rising above them. The rough plaster may be made of coarse lime and hair; or, instead of hair, hay chopped to about three inches in length, may be substituted with advantage. One measure of common rough sand, two measures of slaked lime, and three measures of chopped hay, will form in general a very good



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt. et sculpt.

FLEET PRISON.

rebuilt in its present state with brick and stone. The court into which you enter is the whole length of the building, which is about ninety feet. Passing through the lobby, you enter the inner court, where the prisoners entertain themselves with tennis, fives, and other amusements, as represented in the plate.

The building is separated into five divisions :

1st. The cellar floor, containing the kitchen, cellar, and fourteen apartments.

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proportion when sufficiently beaten up together in the manner of common mortar : the hay should be put in after the two other ingredients are well beaten up together with water. This plaster should be made stiff ; and when the flooring-boards are required to be laid down very soon, a fourth or fifth part of quicklime in powder, formed by dropping a small quantity of water on the limestone a little while before it is used, and well mixed with this rough plaster, will cause it to be very fast. If any cracks appear in the rough plaster-work near the joist when it is thoroughly dry, they ought to be closed by washing them over with a brush wet with mortar-wash : this wash may be prepared by putting two measures of quicklime, and one of common sand, in a pail, and stirring the mixture with water, till the water becomes of the consistence of a thin jelly. Before the flooring-boards are laid, a small quantity of very dry common sand should be strewed over the plaster-work, and struck smooth with a hollow rule, moved in the direction of the joists, so that it may lie rounding between each pair of joists. The plaster-work and sand should be perfectly dry before the boards are laid, for fear of the dry rot. The method of under-flooring may be successfully applied to a wooden staircase, but no sand is to be laid upon the rough plaster-work. The method of extra-lathing may be applied to ceiling joists, to sloping roofs, and to wooden partitions.—The third method, which is that of inter-securing, is very similar to that of under-flooring, but no sand is afterwards to be laid upon it. Inter-securing is applicable to the same parts of a building as the method of extra-lathing, but it is seldom necessary. The author of this invention made several experiments, in order to demonstrate the efficacy of these methods. In most houses it is only necessary to secure the floors ; and the extra expence of under-flooring, including all materials, was at that time only about nine-pence per square yard, and with the use of quicklime, a little more. The extra expence of extra-lathing is no more than sixpence per square yard for the timber side, wall, and partitions ; but for the ceiling, about nine-pence per square yard : but in most houses no extra-lathing is necessary.

2nd. The chapel gallery, which contains the tap-rooms and fourteen rooms.
3d. The coffee-room gallery, and twenty-four rooms.
4th. The infirmary gallery, and twenty-seven rooms.
5th. The upper gallery, which contains twenty-seven rooms.

The passages or galleries run the whole length of the building. The rooms measure fourteen feet and a half by twelve and a half.

The number of prisoners usually confined in the Fleet is about two hundred and fifty, and the number who have the benefit of the rules is about fifty more.

The keeper is called *the warden of the Fleet*, and his fees from the prisoners, for turning the key, for chamber-rent, &c. amount to a considerable sum.

This prison belongs to the Court of Common Pleas, and hither persons are committed for contempt of orders, &c. in the High Court of Chancery; or upon debt, when, by a writ of *habeas corpus*, they remove themselves thither from any other prison.

The rules or liberties of the Fleet are, all the north side of Ludgate-hill, and the Old Bailey up to Fleet-lane; down that lane into the market, and then turning the corner on the left, all the east side along the Fleet Prison to the bottom of Ludgate-hill.

The ditch was cleansed some years since at a considerable expence, in the performing of which work, at the depth of fourteen feet, were found several Roman utensils; and a little deeper, a great quantity of Roman coins, in silver, copper, brass, and other metals, but none in gold. At Holborn bridge were found two brazen *lares*, about four inches long, one a Bacchus, the other a Ceres. It is a probable conjecture, that these were thrown in by the affrighted Romans at the approach of the enraged Boadicea, who soon took ample revenge on her insulting conquerors. Here were also found numbers of Saxon antiquities, spurs, weapons, keys, seals, &c. ; also medals, crosses, and crucifixes, which might likewise have been flung in on occasion of some alarm. This canal was afterwards neglected, and becoming a nuisance, was filled up, and a sewer formed beneath, to convey the water to the river. The fine market which extends the whole length of the old ditch, rose in its place, in 1733, in which year an act was passed, to empower the lord mayor and citizens to fill the ditch at their own expence, and to vest the fee simple of the ground in them and their successors for ever. The present noble approach to Blackfriars bridge, and the well-built opening of Chatham-place, were but a few years since a muddy ditch. This had been the mouth of the creek, which, as Stow informs us, in 1307 was of depth and width sufficient, "that ten or twelve ships navies at once, with merchandizes, were wont to come to the aforesaid bridge Fleete." It must be recollected, that at this period there were drawbridges upon London bridge, through which ships of a certain size might pass, and discharge their cargoes in the mouth of the river.

This prison was founded as early as the first of Richard I. ; it was also the place of confinement for such as had incurred the displeasure of that arbitrary court, the Star Chamber. This prison became such a scene of cruelty, that, in the year 1729, a most benevolent set of gentlemen, prototypes of the good Howard, formed themselves into a committee, to search into the horrors of the gloomy gaol.

Unpitied and unheard, where misery moans,
Where sickness pines, where thirst and hunger burn,
And poor misfortune feels the lash of vice:
While in the land of liberty (the land
Whose every street and public meeting glow
With open freedom,) little tyrants rag'd,
Snatch'd the lean morsel from the starving mouth;
Tore from cold wint'ry limbs the tatter'd weed,
Even robb'd them of the last of comforts, sleep;
The freeborn Briton to the dungeon chain'd,
Or, as the lust of cruelty prevail'd,
At pleasure mark'd him with inglorious stripes,
And crush'd out lives by secret, barbarous ways.

THOMSON.

All these barbarities were realized. The House of Commons, the year preceding, had taken up the enquiries, and found that Huggins, warden of the Fleet, and Bambridge, his deputy, and William Action, turnkey, had exercised most shocking cruelties. Those monsters were tried for the murder of five unhappy men, who died under the most horrid treatment from them: yet, notwithstanding the prosecution was recommended from the throne, and conducted by the ablest lawyers, to the concern of all good men, these wretches escaped their merited punishment. Since this period the management of the prison has undergone a material alteration for the better; indeed the laudable philanthropy of Mr. Howard has excited a spirit of enquiry into these receptacles of misery and wickedness, which is an honour to the age we live in, and to human nature itself.

The tapster is no longer permitted to rent the tap, nor to hold any rooms in the prison to let out to hire, but is merely a servant of the warden, dismissable at his pleasure.

We add a copy of the rules and orders for the government of this prison.

RULES AND ORDERS.—HILARY TERM, 3 GEORGE II. 1729.

It is ordered, That all and singular the orders or rules here under wrote and established, pursuant to an act of Parliament made and published in the second year of the reign of our said lord the king, intituled *An Act for the Relief of Debtors with respect to the Imprisonment of their Persons*, be well, strictly, and truly observed and kept, as well by the warden of the prison of our lord the king of the Fleet, and all his officers and servants, as by all prisoners who now are, or at any time hereafter shall be, committed to the custody of the said warden.

And it is further ordered, That this rule, with all and every the rules or orders aforesaid, shall be fixed up in the hall of the said prison, for the use, benefit, and inspection of the prisoners detained in the aforesaid prison.

By the Court.

Constitutions and orders renewed and established touching the government of the Fleet Prison, by Sir Robert Catlyn, Knt. chief justice of the King's Bench; Sir William Cordell, Knt. master of the Rolls; Sir James Dyer, Knt. chief justice of the Common Pleas; Sir Edward Saunders, Knt. chief baron of the Exchequer; and others, by virtue of a commission under the great seal of England, bearing date the 3d day of June, in the third year of the reign of Queen Elizabeth; and afterwards reviewed and exemplified under the great seal, the 1st day of February, in the thirty-seventh year of the same reign; and again declared and established as rules and orders by which the said prison of the Fleet should be governed, by letters patent granted to Sir Jeremy Whichcot, of the office of warden of the Fleet, in the nineteenth year of the reign of King Charles the Second.

I. That it may be lawful to the said warden, or his deputy, to appoint so many of the household servants as to either of them shall seem good, to open and shut the two utter gates of the Fleet at such hours as the gates of Ludgate and Newgate are accustomed to be opened and shut; and the said persons to carry in their hands halberts, bills, or any other weapon, as shall seem good unto the said warden or deputy, within his precinct or liberty.

II. That it is and shall be lawful to the said warden and his deputy, to take order from time to time, that no person coming there do carry any weapon further than the porter's lodge there, be he a stranger or other, unless they be licensed so to do by the discretion of such as the same warden shall appoint to keep the gate there.

III. That it may be lawful for the said warden, or his deputy, and so many of his household as shall be thought needful, to keep watch in harness or otherwise within his precinct at all times, as he shall see cause for his better safeguard, if he shall suspect any prisoner within his custody to intend to make an escape.

IV. That it may be lawful for the said warden to take order at all times for such money as shall be gathered at the box, or otherwise generously given to poor men there for the distribution thereof amongst them, if any contention shall arise; and that the said poor men shall always keep one key of the said box, and another key to be at the warden's appointment.

Orders made by the Right Honourable Sir Edward Herbert, Knt. lord chief justice of his majesty's Court of Common Pleas at Westminster, and the rest of the justices of the said court, Friday, the 17th day of February, *anno Domini* 1687, concerning his majesty's prison of the Fleet.

V. If the prisoners on the master's side refuse, or be not able to pay their chamber-rent, then and in such case the warden has liberty to turn them out of his or her chamber into the wards; but no prisoner whatsoever to be confined under the pretence of non-payment of chamber-rent, but all of them to have liberty of walking in the fore-yard, hall, and cellar of the house in the day-time without interruption; the ward gates in the day-time to stand constantly open, and to be opened (*viz.*) at five o'clock in the morning in the summer, and seven in the winter.

And the said justices *do further order*, that the warden shall be at liberty to shut the ward gates at nine of the clock at night in the winter time, and ten in the summer, if he so think fit, provided he keep a watchman constantly to attend there, to let out and in such persons as shall have occasion to go to the necessary-house, they returning as soon as he or she has done there.

VI. That the warden shall not for the future detain or imbezil any prisoner's goods, but that the said warden has liberty to detain the person of such prisoner or prisoners after they are discharged by their creditors, until all lawful fees and dues shall be fully paid and satisfied.

VII. That the warden shall with all convenient speed make and provide a confined room or dungeon in the wards, as it was before the great fire of *London*, for the confinement of persons endeavouring to make their escapes, or guilty of any other great misdemeanor, that the general quietness and liberty of the rest of their fellow prisoners may not be restrained or suffer thereby.

And the persons whose names are hereunto subscribed, having reviewed and considered the said rules and orders, and being informed that a confined room was provided, according to the said last-mentioned order, and that the same is boarded, wholesome, and dry, *do order and declare*, that the rules and orders before-mentioned, shall continue to be rules and orders for the better government of the Fleet Prison, and be observed accordingly.

And whereas some farther regulations are proper and necessary to be made for the better government of the said prison, the persons whose names are hereunto subscribed *do further order*,

VIII. That the warden of the Fleet do keep the chapel of the Fleet in good repair, and take care that divine service be performed, and the sacrament of the Lord's supper administered therein at the usual and proper times, according to the rites and ceremonies of the church of England; and all prisoners are required to attend at the times aforesaid.

IX. And it is hereby further ordered, that no chaplain of the Fleet, or any clergyman being a prisoner within the walls or rules of the Fleet, do presume to marry any person without licence within the prison or rules of the Fleet, and that the warden and his officers do use their utmost diligence to prevent all such marriages.

X. That the warden do cause the stocks to be kept up in the said prison (as has been anciently practised) for the punishment of such prisoners as shall blaspheme the name of God, be guilty of prophane cursing or swearing, or shall behave themselves in a disorderly manner.

XI. That no prisoner do take possession of any chamber within the prison, but with the consent of the warden, or his deputy, or pull down any partition, or make any other material alteration there, without the consent of the warden or his deputy; but that the disposal and appointment of the chambers or rooms within the said prison be in the warden, or his deputy, only; yet so as neither of them do turn any prisoner out of possession, who shall be rightfully possessed of a chamber, without reasonable cause: and that every prisoner, on his or her discharge, do deliver over to the warden, his deputy, or chamberlain, the key of his chamber, and all the warden's furniture therein.

XII. That the warden, or his deputy, may turn any prisoner out of his chamber to the common side, that shall refuse or neglect to pay his or her chamber-rent for the space of three months; and that the warden, or his deputy, shall, in such case, cause an inventory to be made of the prisoner's goods and effects (if any), signed by two witnesses, and shall immediately deliver such goods and effects to such prisoner; but the warden may still detain the person of such prisoner, though discharged by the plaintiff, or in any other manner, until his arrears of chamber-rent shall be fully satisfied and paid.

XIII. That no prisoner, or other person, shall keep any public room within the said prison for selling any victuals, wine, brandy, punch, beer, ale, or other liquor, without leave of the warden, or his deputy; and if any prisoner, or prisoners, shall offend in the premises, it shall be lawful for the warden, or his deputy, to turn him, her, or them, out of their room or rooms to the common side; and the warden and his deputy are hereby required to take care that good order be kept in such public room or rooms, as shall be allowed by either of them to be used as aforesaid.

XIV. That the warden do take effectual care that every prisoner committed to his custody be conveyed to the prison of the Fleet, without being carried to any public victualling or drinking-house, or the private house of any tipstaff, officer, or minister of the Fleet, or of any tenant or relation of his, without the voluntary consent of the person or persons so in custody; and that no garnish, or money, shall be extorted by any prisoner or prisoners from any person committed, for his coming into the said prison.

XV. That the warden do cause a table of the gifts and bequests made for the benefit of the prisoners of the Fleet, expressing the particular purposes for which the same are given, to be fairly writ in a plain and legible hand, to be hung up in the hall of the said prison; and that the warden take care that no prisoner, or prisoners, be deprived or defrauded of his, her, or their shares, dues, or dividends, of the charities so given; and that no cellarman, turnkey, or other officer, or servant of the warden, shall have any share or part in any charity given to the prisoners, or bear any office in the said prison which may entitle him to any power in receipt or disposition of such charity.

XVI. That every prisoner who shall make oath before one of the judges of the court from whence the process issued upon which he or she shall be taken, or charged, or before a commissioner empowered by such court, that he or she is not worth five pounds, and cannot subsist without the charities belonging to the prisoners of the Fleet, shall immediately be admitted to all shares, dividends, and profits arising from such charities.

XVII. That two rooms marked 9 and 10 up the chapel stairs, shall be kept as an infirmary for the use of the prisoners on the common side, who shall fall sick of such diseases as shall require their being removed, to prevent infection, or for necessary care and relief; and that no prisoner shall be obliged to lie in the same bed with a diseased person.

XVIII. That the warden shall keep the prison-house and windows in good and necessary repair, and keep the drains, bog-houses, and dunghill, as clean and free from stench and noisomeness as possible.

XIX. That when any prisoner dies within the said prison, the said warden shall forthwith give notice of such death to the coroner, that the said coroner may enquire, according to law, how such prisoner came by his death; and that the said warden shall detain the body no longer than till the coroner's inquest have made their inquisition, which shall be done with all convenient speed, and that immediately afterwards the dead body shall be delivered to the prisoner's friends or relations, if they desire it, without fee or reward.

XX. That the warden do not sue, or procure to be sued out any writ of *habeas corpus* to remove any prisoner from the prison of the Fleet to the prison of the King's Bench.

XXI. That the warden shall keep a book, in which all commitments shall be fairly entered in the words of such commitment within fourteen days after any prisoner shall be committed.

XXII. That the warden shall keep another book, containing the names of every prisoner actually brought into the Fleet, and taken into the house, with the name of the party at whose suit he shall be committed, and the time when the prisoner was brought to the Fleet, and received into the prison, specifying withal the court or judge by whose authority he shall be committed.

XXIII. That every tipstaff, to whom any prisoner shall be delivered in custody at a judge's chamber, shall keep a book, containing the name of such prisoner, the time when he was taken into custody, to be signed by such judge's clerk; and such judge's clerk shall keep another book, in which the like entry shall be made, signed by the tipstaff.

XXIV. That the warden shall keep a book, in which *memorandums* shall be entered of all declarations delivered to the turnkey or porter, against any prisoner in the Fleet Prison, containing the names of the parties, the cause of action, and the time when such declaration shall be delivered.

XXV. That the warden shall keep a book, in which all discharges of prisoners shall be fairly entered, which entry shall specify how such discharge was made, whether by the plaintiff, by *supersedeas*, or otherwise, and such entry shall be made within five days after every discharge.

XXVI. That the warden shall keep a book, in which every writ of *habeas corpus*, upon which the prisoner shall not be committed or the custody altered, with the return of every such writ of *habeas corpus*, shall be fairly entered.

XXVII. That all the books before-mentioned, except the tipstaff's book, shall be kept in the public office of the clerk of the papers of the Fleet; and that all persons shall have liberty to resort to them, and to take copies, as there shall be occasion.

XXVIII. That no clerk, officer, or servant whatsoever, belonging to any judge of this court, shall directly or indirectly demand, receive, or take any gratuity, fee, or reward, for, or by reason of any petition, complaint, or application, that shall be made by any prisoner or prisoners of the said prison, pursuant to, or founded upon any of the rules and orders herein before-mentioned, or concerning any misgovernment in the Fleet.

XXIX. Lastly, that the said warden and his officers do treat the several prisoners in his custody with all tenderness and humanity, and that such prisoners do behave themselves towards the warden with that submission and regard which the law requires.

R. EYRE,
ROB. PRICE,
ALEX. DENTON,
J. FORTESCUE A.

AN EXTRACT FROM THE BOOK OF FEES KEPT IN THE FIRST PROTHONOTARIES' OFFICE OF THE COURT OF COMMON PLEAS.

Termino Hillar. 21° *Jacobi regis,* 1625, *a comic*^{on} *having issued from his maj*^{ty} *to enquire into fees, &c. taken from the* 30*th of Q. Eliz*^{a}.

Inter alia,

Fees due and belonging to the warden of the Fleet, and his under officers, as appeareth by a commission, under the great seal of England, from the late Queen Eliz^{a}. *in the* 3rd *year of her reign, and confirmed in the* 37th *year of Eliz*^{a}. *what every in their several degree ought to pay.*

		£	s.	d.
An arch bishop, *A duke,* *A dutchess,*	are to pay for their comitm^{t}. fee to the warden of the Fleet, and his officers, having the first weeks' dyett .	21	10	0
	also they are to pay for their ordinary comons weekly, with wine	3	6	8
A marquess, *A marquessess,* *An earl,* *A countess,* *A vice countess,*	are to pay for their comitm^{t}. fee to the warden of the Fleet, and his officers, having the first week's dyett .	11	11	0
	also they are to pay for their ordinary comons weekly, with wine	2	0	0

		£	s.	d.
A lord spiritual or temporal, a lady the wife of a baron or a lord,	are to pay for their comitmt. fee to the warden of the Fleet, and his officers, having the first week's dyett	10	5	10
	also they are to pay for their ordinary comons weekly, with wine	1	10	0
A knight, a lady the wife of a knight, a dr. of divinity, a dr. of law, and others of like callings,	are to pay for their comitmt. fee to the warden of the Fleet, and his officers, having the first week's dyett	5	0	0
	also they are to pay for their ordinary comons weekly	0	18	6
An esqe. a gentn. a gentlew. that shall sit at the parlour comons, or any person or persons, under that degree, that shall be at the same ordinary comons of the parlour,	are to pay for their comitmt. fee to the warden of the Fleet, and his officers, having the first week's dyett and lodging	3	6	8
	also they are to pay for their ordinary weekly comons, with wine	0	10	0
A yeoman, or any other that shall be at the hall comons, man or woman,	are to pay for their comitmt. fee to the warden and his officers, having the first week's dyett	1	14	4
	also they are to pay for their ordinary weekly comons, with wine	0	5	0

	£	s.	d.
A poor man in the wards that hath a part at the box, is to pay for his fee, having no dyett	0	7	4
Also there is due to the warden of the Fleet 20*d. per diem* for the whole day, and 10*d.* for the half day, for every man that the warden may lawfully license to go abroad.			
Moreover, the warden of the Fleet hath return of writs, as the sheriffs and bayliffs of libertys have, for which he hath for allowance and return of every warr^{t} or attachm^{t}	0	2	4
Also for every *habeas corpus cum causâ* there are fees for returning the causes, viz.			
For allowance of the writt	0	2	4
For returning the first cause	0	2	4
and after every execution	0	2	0
To the warden's clerk for every acc^{on} . . .	0	1	0
And to the warden's servant to bring the prisoner safe to the barr	0	5	0

At Whitehall, the 9th *Jan.* 1629.

PRESENT,

THE KING'S MAJESTY,

L^{d} Keeper,
L^{d} Cha^{r}
L^{d} Presid^{t}
L^{d} Privy Seal,
L^{d} Marshall,
L^{d} Steward,
Earl of Dorsett,
Earl of Carlisle,
Earl of Holland,
L^{d} Visc^{t} Dorchester,
Mr. Vice Chamberlane,
Mr. Secretary Cooke.

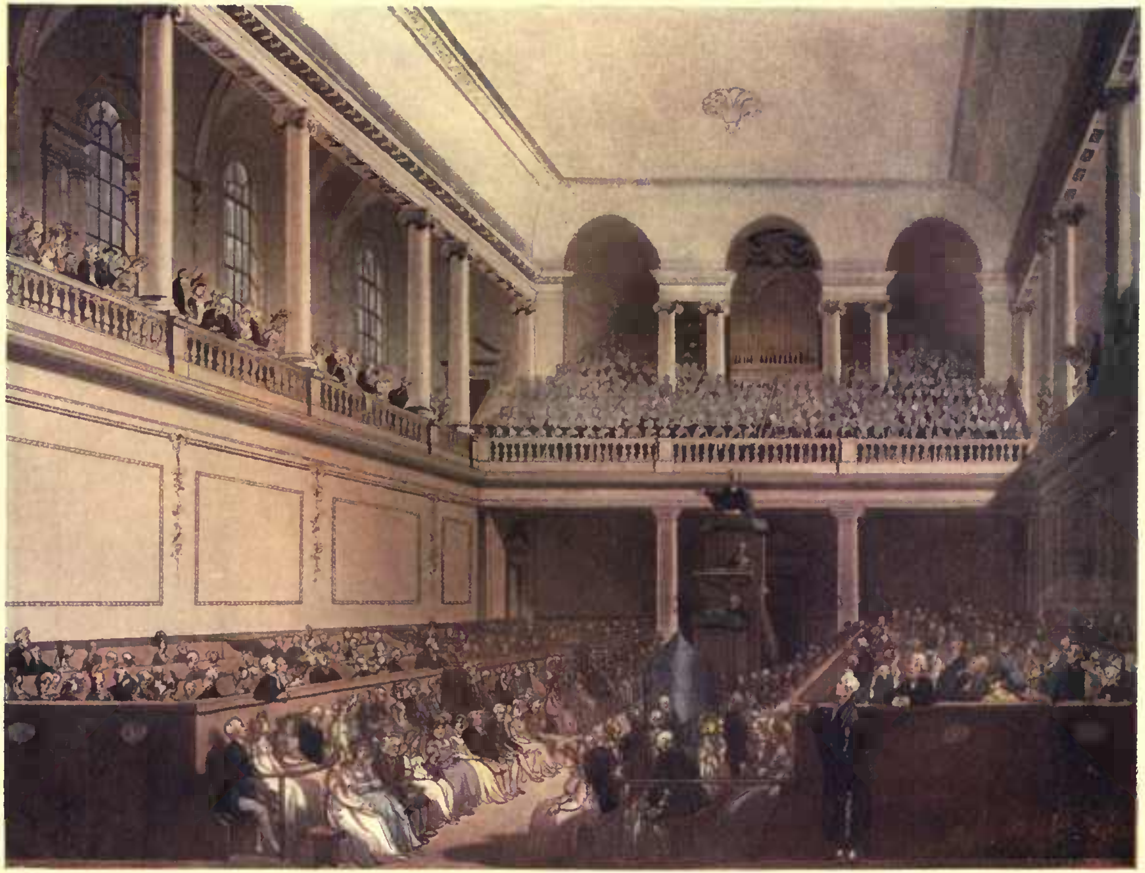
It is this day tho^{ht} fitt and ordered (*inter alia*), that the jurors, and such others by whom the truth may be best discovered, shall present their full knowledge of perticuler exactions and extortions comitted by the officers, attorneys, clerks, and ministers of and belonging to the Courts of Chancery and Comon Pleas, and perticulerly by whom, how much, of whom, when, and wherefore, any new or unwarrantable fees or rewards have been exacted or received, and that speedy return be made thereof, for his maj$^{ty's}$ most effectual and important service upon the comission for enquiry after exacted fees and inovated offices.

Ex^{e} p. JO. DIBLEY,
Ckcn. Diet Comission.

"Altho' the warden for severall kings' and queens' reigns since discontinued keeping any table in the prison, and the prisoners provided for themselves, yet the fee of 3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* as a comitm^{t} fee was continued to be paid to all the wardens, and is continued to be paid to this day for all prisoners comitted by the councell, secretarys of state, High Court of Chancery, and Court of Excheq^{r} and the same fee is paid to the black rodd, and all serj^{ts} at armes: but in the last year of King James the Second, the judges of the Comon Pleas, taking notice of a clause in an act made for the discharge of poor prisoners, allowing prisoners to send out of the prison for their necessary food, who before had been forc't to take it at the celler of the prison at unreasonable rates, applied that clause to the lessening of the warden's fee; for that, by the establishm^{t} of the 3rd of Eliz^{a} the week's comons was part of the fee; and reduced the fee on the master's side to 2*l.* 4*s.* 4*d.* and 1*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.* on the comon side, w^{ch} hath ever since been paid for every comitm^{t} or render in discharge of bayle where the prisoner or his bayle have been able; and the fees to y^{e} judges, their clerks, and the tipstaffs, are likewise distintly paid for every render, as if the prison^{rs} were bro^{t} upp by severall *habeas corpuses* to discharge their severall bayles, as they formerly used to do: but now the attorneys have found out how to save so many *habeas corpuses;* and Mr. Ford and Mr. Stone, who acted long before Mr. Grindall's time, have made affid^{ts} hereof; and there is another affid^{t} that Mr. Dixon, who was clerk of the papers of the Fleet for above eighteen years, gave the present warden, at the time of his comeing into this office, an account of these fees due and paid in all his time: Mr. Brampton, Judge Tracy's clerk, Mr. Whiten, the L^{d} Cheife Justice King's clerk, Mr. Mason, the L^{d} Parker's clerk, Mr. Watts, the clerk of the papers of the King's Bench, give the like account, and that such fees were paid before the prisoners turned over; and the now warden is ready to make oath, that, between twenty and thirty years since, when he was a practising attorney in the city of London, he paid the like fees for tenn renders at a time, and well remembers in w^{t} clyents' cases such fees were paid."

Mr. Nixon relates, that when they took down the old houses in the market in the year 1793, in order to build the present wall, at the depth of about twenty feet from the surface, they found a stone door-way standing complete, which Sir William Chambers (the king's surveyor general) and Mr. N. imagined to have been an entrance into the prison, as it communicated therewith by means of a flight of stone steps. They also thought, that at the time this table of fees existed, it was probable that such prisoners as were committed to the Fleet by the Star Chamber and other arbitrary authorities, were put into a covered boat, and conveyed down the Thames, and thence up the river Holborn (which was then navigable), and put into the prison by this door: the ancient foundation of the old houses went considerably below it, the oak planking whereof (although perhaps it had lain there five hundred years) was as perfect and sound as if just put down, and actually forms a part of the planking of the foundation of the present wall.

The Fleet Prison, it is believed, after the fire of London in 1666, was removed to that site of ground upon which the almshouses through Vauxhall turnpike, on the Wandsworth road, now stand, until the old prison was rebuilt, Sir Jeremy Whichcott, then warden, having his family seat there, which he converted into a prison; for which patriotic act, and rebuilding the old one at his own expence, he and his heirs were wardens as long as they lived. The office of warden of the Fleet was formerly of such consequence, that a brother of one of the Edwards is said to have been in the list of wardens.



Pugin & Rowlandson, delt et sculpt

FOUNDLING HOSPITAL.
THE CHAPEL.

THE FOUNDLING HOSPITAL

THE instinct which protects our helpless offspring, and which is denominated *parental affection*, is bestowed upon all animated nature: but HUMANITY, the desire of assisting our fellow-creatures, of relieving their distresses, and promoting their happiness, belongs exclusively to the human race. In the infancy of society, individual benevolence *may* be adequate to the relief of individual distress; but when millions are united in one community, it is then that individual efforts are incapable, not only of affording adequate relief to the unfortunate, but even of distinguishing and selecting the proper objects of benevolence. But when the exertions of many individuals are directed by one spirit, to one object, they acquire a *momentum* of power, which never can be attained by an unconnected individual: having one single point in view, to which they devote all their efforts, they act with an accumulating degree of zeal, perseverance, and emulation, till each individual acquires the same interest in the happiness of others, that he possesses in his own; and thus the best and the purest species of public spirit is generated and preserved in a great country.

The impulse of this principle is one of the most honourable and characteristic traits which distinguishes the British nation; a nation affording examples of a greater variety of noble and useful establishments, in their nature purely disinterested, than any nation in Europe. Indeed it appears scarcely credible, that there should ever have existed a period, when hospitals for the preservation of exposed and deserted infants, had been opened at Paris, Madrid, Lisbon, Rome, Venice, and Amsterdam, and no charity of that kind existing in England. In the reign of Queen Anne a scheme of this nature had been projected, but had not succeeded.

In 1713, Mr. Addison, in one of his periodical essays (No. 105 of *The Guardian*), directed the public attention again to the subject. But it was near ten years after, that Mr. Thomas Coram, master of a trading vessel to the American colonies, undertook, and, after a labour of seventeen years, succeeded in the establishment of the Foundling Hospital.

On the 17th day of October, 1739, the king granted his charter to the governors and guardians of the Foundling Hospital, constituting them a corporate body, authorizing the purchase of real estates not exceeding 4000*l.* a year, and appointing courts (at which the presence of thirteen governors at least should be required) for the election of committees, a president, and other officers, and for the general acts of the corporation.

It may be necessary to shew how far the Foundling Hospital differs from all foreign charities for foundlings; and to explain why a limited establishment of this kind is proper in England, although the system of general reception is rendered unnecessary, by the institution of our poor laws.—The existence of such a code, and the establishment of a permanent and certain provision for the aged and the helpless, not of occasional bounty, but of uncontrovertible right, and the anxious care which has watched, though not with equal success, over every abuse or neglect in the execution of them, may be placed in competition with the greatest of our national achievements. To those, however, who have paid much attention to the execution of these laws, it must have occurred, that there are some cases in which, from the necessary imperfection of all human establishments, the remedy is rendered very inadequate: such, among others, is the instance of those unhappy females, who, by broken faith, by unprincipled seduction, or by some unfortunate circumstance, are placed in a situation, where indigence and excess of bodily pain are aggravated by the prospect of hopeless contumely and irretrievable disgrace; and who have sometimes been driven to a crime, which no mother could ever have imagined, who was not first reduced to the utmost extreme of agony and despair.

These are the objects to which the benefits of this charity are peculiarly directed. In such a city as London, there always will be some instances, in which the existence of the child, and the future welfare and good conduct of the mother, can only be secured by such an establishment as that of the Foundling Hospital; and it may be questioned, in many instances, whether even the preservation of the helpless and unoffending infant is so meritorious and beneficial an act of charity, as the rescuing its wretched mother from a course of infamy and prostitution, and restoring her to character and the means of honest industry.

The selection of such cases, with a patient investigation of circumstances, is one of the most important duties of the acting guardians of this charity. In one respect, this Hospital differs from those in other countries, where the law has not appointed any peculiar provision for the poor. Theirs are necessarily open and universal: this, except during a short period, when the system was totally and very improperly changed, extended only to those cases where the poor laws do not afford competent relief.

The inconvenience to be apprehended from such an asylum is, the encouragement that may be given in some instances to licentious habits of life, *by the ease of providing for the consequences of it.* But no such ill effects could ever ensue, if the sufferings of these penitent and unhappy women were fully known to those who might otherwise have been inclined to follow their example. And it is deserving of observation, that no instance has come to the knowledge of the committee, of any woman so relieved, who has not been thereby saved from (what she would in all probability have been involved in) a course of vice and prostitution. The detail of their wretched and deserted situation, sometimes too well confirmed by the almost starving condition in which some of the infants are brought into the Hospital, is one (I might say the only) painful circumstance to those who attend as the acting administrators of the charity; a detail which, if it could be given to the world without injury to the unhappy subjects of it, would serve to deter from vice those who might otherwise become the victims of seduction.

The first general court of the new corporation was held at Somerset-House, on the 20th of November, 1739; the chairman being the Duke of Bedford, who, for a period of above thirty years, continued to act as President of the Hospital, until his death in 1771.

Soon after the governors applied for and obtained an act of Parliament, confirming their charter, with the addition of some further powers, and the exemption of the Hospital from parochial jurisdiction and interference.

The securing of an healthy and convenient site for the Hospital, was a subject to which the governors had paid an early attention. In October 1740, the committee had been authorized to purchase of the Earl of Salisbury the two fields on the northern side of Ormond-street, the situation appearing to be extremely eligible for the charity. His lordship declined treating, unless all his land there, extending to Gray's Inn-lane, was included in the purchase; and named as a price for the whole, what his agent stated to have been already offered, the sum of 7000*l.* Difficulties however arising, on the part of the governors, with respect to the amount of the sum, the earl very liberally obviated them, by a donation of 500*l.* towards the purchase, reducing it thereby to 6500*l.* The general court immediately accepted the offer, and gave orders for a completion of the contract.

The land purchased of Lord Salisbury appeared so desirable a situation for the Hospital, and benefactions for the intended building flowed in with so liberal a current, that the corporation very speedily took into consideration the erection of an Hospital on their new estate; and on the 16th day of September, 1742, the foundation stone of the western wing was laid, and the building begun, upon a design prepared by Mr. Jacobsen, one of the governors and first benefactors to the charity; the estimate of it amounting to 6555*l.* 17*s.* 1*d.*

The western wing of the new Hospital was finished, and the houses in Hatton-Garden given up, in October 1745. In March 1746, a subscription was opened for the building of the chapel;

and, the next year, the general committee was authorized to contract for the immediate erection of it, upon a plan presented by Mr. Jacobsen, the estimate of which was 4195*l.* 17*s.* 4*d.* And in 1749, the general committee (in order that the girls might be kept separate from the boys) was authorized to proceed to the building of the eastern wing; which, together with the treasurer's house, appears to have been ready for habitation in 1752.

The whole of the building (originally calculated to hold four hundred children) was intended to be plain and without decoration; but the talents and public spirit of several artists benevolently varied the intention, and many ornaments were presented by them to the charity. To Mr. Hogarth, who was an active governor and an early benefactor, the Hospital is indebted for three pictures; one his *March to Finchley*, which, in the opinion of some judges, stands first in the catalogue of his works; and another, the portrait of the founder, Mr. *Coram*, an excellent and well painted picture. A list and description of these donations, taken from the original printed account of the Hospital, are inserted in a note.*

The charity is under very great obligation to the benevolence

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* In the court-room were placed four capital figures, the subjects being parts of the sacred history, suitable to the place for which they were designed.

The first, painted by Mr. Hayman, and taken from the 2d chapter of *Exodus*, ver. 8, 9. the words of which are, "The maid went and called the child's mother, and "Pharaoh's daughter said unto her, Take this child away and nurse it for me, and I will "give you wages."

The ensuing verse is the subject of the next picture, viz. "And the child grew, and "she brought him to Pharaoh's daughter, and he became her son, and she called his "name *Moses*." This picture is painted by Mr. Hogarth.

The third picture is *the History of Ishmael*, painted by Mr. Highmore. The subject taken from the 21st chapter of *Genesis*, ver. 17. "And the angel of the Lord called to of Mr. Handel, who, upon the building of the chapel, gave the Hospital an organ, and the benefit of his oratorio of the *Messiah*, the performance of which he conducted himself. This he repeated for several years, with an advantage to the funds of the charity, amounting in the whole to upwards of 6700*l.*; and at his death, in 1759, bequeathed his property in the music of that oratorio to the Hospital.

In March 1751, Mr. Coram, the benevolent founder of the Hospital, died, in the 84th year of his age. In consequence of a

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"Hagar out of heaven, and said to her, What aileth thee, Hagar? Fear not, for God "hath heard the voice of the lad where he is!"

The fourth picture was painted by Mr. Willes; its subject taken from the 18th chapter of *Luke*, ver. 16. "Jesus said, Suffer little children to come unto me, and forbid them "not; for of such is the kingdom of God." On each side of these pictures are placed smaller pictures, in circular frames, representing the most considerable Hospitals in and about London.

1. The view of the Foundling Hospital, by Mr. Wilson.
2. The view of the hospital at *Hyde Park Corner*, called *St. George's* Hospital, also by Mr. Wilson.
3. The view of *Chelsea* Hospital, by Mr. Haytley.
4. The view of *Bethlem* Hospital, also by Mr. Haytley.
5. The view of St. *Thomas's* Hospital, by Mr. Whale.
6. The view of *Greenwich* Hospital, by Mr. Whale.
7. The view of the *Blue Coat* Hospital, also by Mr. Whale.
8. The view of *Sutton's* Hospital, called the Charter-House, by Mr Gainsborough.

Over the chimney is placed a very curious bass-relief, carved by Mr. Rysbrack, and presented by him, representing children employed in navigation and husbandry; being the employments to which the children of this hospital are destined.

The other ornaments of the room were also given by several ingenious workmen, who had been employed in building the Hospital, and were desirous to contribute to its establishment.

The stucco work was given by Mr. William Wilton; the marble chimney by Mr. Deval; the table with its frame enriched with carving, by Mr. John Sanderson, and the glass by Mr. Hallet.

In the other rooms of the Hospital are the following pictures:—His Most Sacred wish expressed in his lifetime, he was interred under the chapel, in the midst of that charity which he had founded; a monument more noble and dignified than ever pride or wealth obtained. His life had been so totally devoid of self-interest, that he left behind him property hardly sufficient to discharge the expences of his funeral.

The increase of the income arising from the chapel, was an object of importance in point of revenue; and in this the charity was more early in its success. The general committee, in order to ensure a maintenance to a blind boy of the Hospital, had, in 1758, been induced to give directions for his being regularly instructed in music, at the expence of the charity: a similar order was made in 1768, and again in 1771; and the seeds of benevolence in these, as in most instances, have been returned with tenfold produce into the bosom of the charity. The attention of the governors to the management of the chapel, and to the instruction of the children in sacred music, has, from that time, been attended with great emolument to the charity. From the annual sum of 37*l.* 4*s.* 1*d.* the whole receipt from the chapel in 1766, it had in 1776 increased to 340*l.* 15*s.* 3*d.*; in 1786, to 881*l.* 4*s.* 1*d.*; in 1795, to 1594*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.*; and the produce of the chapel in 1806, was 2816*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.*

Majesty King *George* the Second, *Patron of this Hospital*, by Mr. Shakleton, painter to his majesty. The Right Honourable the Earl of *Dartmouth*, one of the vice-presidents of the Hospital, by Sir Joshua Reynolds. *Taylor White*, Esq. treasurer of the Hospital, in crayons, by Mr. Coates. Mr. *Thomas Coram*, and *The March of the Guards to Finchley*, by Mr. Hogarth; Mr. *Milner* and Mr. *Jacobsen*, by Mr. Hudson; Dr. *Mead*, by Mr. Ramsay; Mr. *Emerson*, by Mr. Highmore; *Francis Fauquier*, Esq. lieutenant governor of Virginia, by Mr. Wilson. A large sea-piece, by Mr. Brooking; and a fine landscape, by Mr. Lambert.

A kitchen has been fitted up at the Foundling Hospital, upon the plan, and under the direction, of Count Rumford. It has now been in constant and daily use for thirteen years; and, *the direction with regard to the quantity of fuel having been strictly adhered to, it has been found to answer very completely.* The saving in coals to the charity has been 25 chaldrons a year. Two cooks were employed before, and in very warm service; there is now only one, and (the first instruction properly attended to) she finds it an easy duty. The iron work requires occasionally some repair; but not so much as the old kitchen did, or so much as would be required by any common kitchen, from whence two hundred and fifty persons were to be supplied with their daily food. During warm weather, the flues retain the heat so well, that half a peck of coals, with cinders, is as much as is now used for either the boiler or roaster. In winter it amounts to about a peck of coals, of the inferior and smaller sort, that will not burn in common fires.

Music had been a source of very considerable benefit to the charity; and by the benevolence of Mr. Handel, very large sums had been added to the funds of the corporation. In July 1774, Doctor Burney and Mr. Giardini presented to the general court a plan for establishing a public music-school at the Hospital; a plan which promised considerable, though no immediate, advantage to the charity; but the proposal was rejected,* as not warranted by the Act of Parliament.

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* This may be a proper subject for reconsideration. The scheme, as then offered, seems to have been chiefly exceptionable, because the projectors extended it too far. How far, cannot now be precisely stated, as the plan was returned to the projectors, and

To the plan of re-establishing the finances, and perpetuating the funds of the charity, by granting building leases, objections had always been made, which, for a series of years, had prevented the improvement of the hospital estate. However, in May 1785, the governors being alarmed by the circumstance of the expences of the Hospital having for some time exceeded the income, a committee of enquiry was appointed; and, in March 1786, after a lapse of above ten years, the consideration of the improvement of their estate was resumed. In March 1787, the general committee was empowered to receive proposals, for taking any part of the hospital land on building leases.

In December 1787, it was resolved, that such part of the estate as laid south of, and adjoining to, the road leading from the gates of the Hospital to Gray's Inn-lane, should be let on building leases; and the general committee was desired to advertise the same, and to lay all proposals, which they should receive relating thereto, before the next court.—This was confirmed in March 1788; and the ground of the Hospital was then ordered to be advertised generally, to be let on building leases, and the most speedy and effectual measures to be taken for letting the same.

The building committee, with the aid of Mr. Cockerell, prepared a general and very full report on the subject; and (in case of the success of the measure) stated the probable accession of ground

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no copy kept. A musical school within the Hospital, for the children incapable of any other means of livelihood, might, under proper limitations, prove a benefit to the funds of the Hospital, and a source of inestimable charity; by giving comfort and independence to any of the hospital children whose sight may fail, and, in some cases, to children deprived of sight, the peculiarity of whose distress may entitle them to the protection of the charity.

rents at the annual sum of at least 4000*l.* What has been since let, amounts to 3045*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.* exclusive of 552*l.* 15*s.* under a pepper-corn rent, but which will be receivable in 1808 and 1809.

The gradual restoration of the finances of the Hospital, and the late increase of benefactions and legacies, have enabled the governors to replace stock which they had been compelled to sell for the maintenance of the children; to set about that general and thorough repair of the Hospital, which it had long wanted; to liquidate its outstanding debts; and, at the same time, gradually to increase the establishment of its children, with a prospect of a further augmentation. In March 1799 (in order to open the doors *equally and impartially* to all proper objects), the general court directed, that public notice be given, that there are, at present, vacancies for several children, to be admitted into the Foundling Hospital;—that the ordinary age of reception (except in very particular cases) is within twelve months from the birth;—that, in order to the reception of the child, the previous good character and the present necessity of the mother, and the desertion of the father, must be enquired into; and also, whether the reception of the child, together with the secrecy observed as to the misfortune of the mother, will be attended with the consequence of her being replaced in a course of virtue, and in a way of obtaining an honest livelihood;—that where these concurrent circumstances can be ascertained on the testimony of credible persons, the unfortunate mother is requested to apply herself, with her own petition; and to be assured, that both recommendation and patronage will be unnecessary and useless. It was at the same time notified, that the general committee continued to sit for examination of petitions for admission of children, every Wednesday morning, precisely at ten o'clock.

The reception for children at the Foundling Hospital in London, is on the Saturday at noon preceding a public baptism; the circumstances of each case having been investigated and ascertained during the preceding month, and proper nurses sent up by the inspectors in the country for the children to be admitted. The age of admittance is, generally, within six weeks from the birth; and, unless in some very few cases of peculiar distress, is limited by the rules of the charity to twelve months.

The children are publicly christened the next day, in the Foundling chapel, during the Sunday evening service; and on Monday morning they are conveyed, under the care of their nurses, to their respective cottages, in the neighbourhood of the inspectors, about twenty or thirty miles from London. Care is taken that no nurse shall have more than one wet-nurse child at a time; and in case of the death of a child, the nurse, by the regulations of the charity, is not to be entrusted with another child; unless, upon enquiry as to the attention she has paid it, the circumstances appear to be *very* favourable to her. The nurse is allowed three shillings a week; and, if the child is living at the end of the first year, she is entitled to a reward of ten shillings. The mortality among the children at nurse is very small,* compared with that of infants in almost any other situation of life.

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* It appears, by reference to the books of the Hospital, that there has been, since the end of the year 1770, the number of 1666 children received into the Hospital, of whom 482 children died under the age of twelve months, being rather more than the proportion

The principal objects of this charitable institution are,

1. To prevent the murder or destruction of illegitimate infants at their birth, or soon after, by their own mothers; who are often led to these unnatural crimes in the first agonies of despair, from the dread of infamy and ruin.

2. To give those unhappy women who may have been seduced and forsaken, an opportunity of retrieving their characters, by returning to habits of honest industry and a virtuous course of life; for want of which they are often exposed to contempt within the circle of their acquaintance, and have frequently recourse to a state of prostitution, or dishonesty, in consequence of being excluded from every reputable connection and employment.

3. To protect and educate a great number of helpless infants, who otherwise, if not wilfully destroyed, might perish with hunger and disease; or become a burden and nuisance to society, from their decrepitude, their ignorance, and their crimes, instead of being, what they generally prove to be, useful subjects, good christians, and faithful servants. Within the walls of the Foundling Hospital they grow up healthy, innocent, and strong; they are wholly excluded from the contagion of bad example, and are not only instructed during their childhood in the principles of revealed religion, but are bred up to habits of useful industry.

These three important objects have all been accomplished with the greatest success.

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of one in four. The present management and care of the children is more successful; the average of those who have died under twelve months in the preceding ten years, being only one in six; and, for the last four or five years, even less than that proportion. The number of children admitted since the commencement of this institution is upwards of 18,800, to the present time.

Manner of Admission.—Women whose infants are proper objects of the Foundling Charity, and not above a year old, may apply on any Wednesday, before ten o'clock, to the secretary at the Hospital, with petitions, which may be prepared by themselves if they can write; if not, by a friend. No particular form is required, and no interest or recommendation is necessary to procure for them the benefit of the Hospital. The circumstances which every woman will be required to prove, by reference to credible persons, are,

1. That the child is her own, and who is the father; both which circumstances must, if required, be attested on the oath of the mother herself.

2. What is become of the father of the infant, to the best of her knowledge.

3. That her general character and conduct, before her offence, have been honest and reputable.

4. That she is not able to provide for her child herself, without being reduced to extreme indigence, and without exposure of her guilt. And,

5. That by providing for her infant, and concealing her shame, there is a prospect of her returning to a virtuous course of life, and preserving her former station in society.

It may not be improper to add, that the committee are particularly attentive in their enquiries as to the conduct and character of the mother previous and subsequent to her seduction. That the circumstance of her having remained only a short time in place, or having frequented the company of the idle and profligate when out of place, operate very much against her; and they are, with great propriety, extremely indignant at any references to persons against whom a well founded suspicion can arise of having been partakers of the wages of prostitution. Indeed, references to persons who are inclined to speak well from motives of commiseration, rather than knowledge, or warranted good opinion, injure the cause they are intended to support.

On the other hand, cases that come recommended by previous length of service, good and honest characters, cases of seduction by fellow servants, or persons in a similar degree of life, under solemn promises of marriage, followed by unprincipled desertion, and accompanied with that indescribable conflict of mind which a young person necessarily undergoes, who, notwithstanding her loss of innocence, retains a virtuous heart—who, plunged from the elevation of character, to the depth of shame and remorse, still feels the anxieties and anguish of maternal affection—who anticipates even the success of a petition which is to separate the child from her bosom, with a pang almost of annihilation—such cases want no patronage, no other recommendations to interest the governors of this charity; on the contrary, they frequently assist *such mothers* by an allowance from private funds equal to the redemption of her clothes if pawned, or enable her to purchase what she stands in need of.

TREATMENT OF INFANTS AFTER ADMISSION.

When any child is admitted into the Hospital, the mother receives a receipt, which entitles her to enquire after the child; and to claim it, if she, or her husband, is in a situation to maintain it. The time for receiving children into the Hospital, is generally the first Saturday in every month; and on the following day they are publicly baptized during the evening service. The next morning they are sent into the country, about twenty or thirty miles from London, to their nurses, who are under the observance and controul of inspectors, living in the neighbourhood, and appointed by the general committee. No wet-nurse is permitted to have more than one child at a time: she receives her weekly allowance from the inspectors, and a gratuity besides, if the child under her care is living at the end of a twelvemonth. The children, while in the country, are frequently visited by persons sent, without notice, by the general committee; and when they are about four years old, they return to the Hospital.

Education.—They are taught reading, writing, and accounts; they are also instructed in the church catechism, and learn to sing the Foundling Hymns and Anthems. The girls, in addition to this, are taught knitting and plain work.

Employment.—The girls are chiefly employed in needle-work, which the Hospital takes in; in making their own clothes, and all the linen of the Hospital, and in such household work as is calculated to make them good servants.

The boys occasionally work in the garden, keep the court-yard and chapel clean, and do such household work as may serve to make them useful, and give them habits of industry.

Apprenticeship.—The boys are apprenticed at twelve or thirteen, and the girls at fourteen years of age. The former are generally placed with London shopkeepers, to whom their being able to write and keep accounts, is of considerable importance.

Some are taken as house servants, or employed in husbandry; others are articled to such trades as they are capable of learning, and some go to sea. The girls are in general apprenticed to persons in town or country, as servants.

RULES RELATING TO THE APPRENTICING OF CHILDREN.

1. No boy, or girl, is apprenticed to any person but a housekeeper, of whose character and situation a strict enquiry is previously made.

2. No girl is apprenticed to an unmarried man, nor to any married man, without the concurrence of the wife.

3. In general, the girls are not apprenticed to any person who lets lodgings, and who does not keep, at least, one established servant in the house.

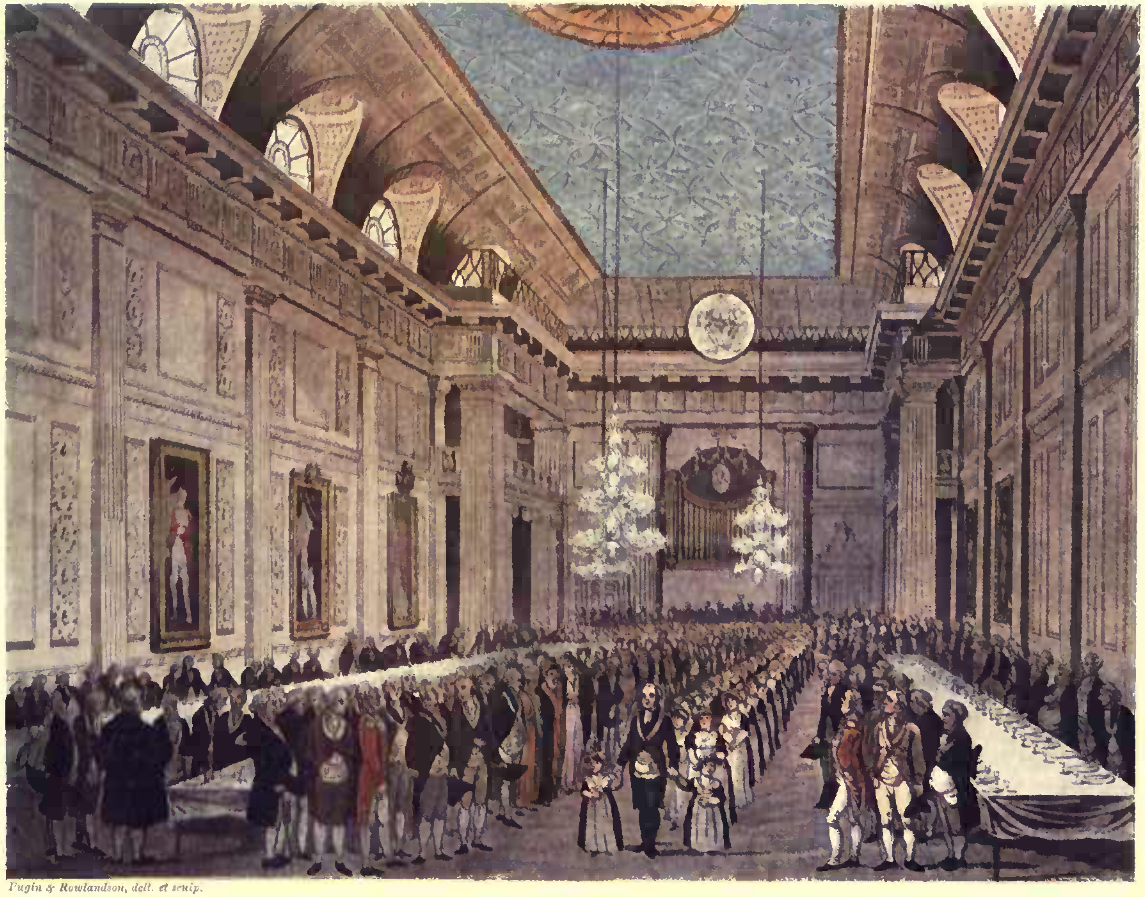
4. The children are frequently visited during their apprenticeship, the girls by the matron, and the boys by the schoolmaster. The house committee, which sits on a Saturday, at half-past nine o'clock, is ready to hear any complaint, and to redress any grievance between the apprentices and their respective masters or mistresses, and do not consider their duty as guardians fulfilled till they are twenty-one years of age.

It appears from a report of the treasurer's, made in May 1798, that out of 252 children then serving their apprenticeships,

There were found to be doing well	166
In distant situations of whom there had been no complaint	27
Apprenticed to their own relations	23
Of doubtful conduct requiring judicious management	21
Who had turned out ill, only	15
	252

It appears also by the report, that the proportion of good servants in place, and of industrious apprentices in trade, among the children of the Foundling Hospital, is as great as from any other class of young persons; and that there are many respectable persons in London, married and settled in business, who have been educated and apprenticed by this charity.

We cannot leave this subject without expressing the satisfaction we have felt in pursuing our enquiries into the details of this excellent institution, and we add with sincere pleasure our feeble testimony to the active and successful benevolence with which its concerns are administered.



Pugin & Rowlandson, delt. et sculp.

FREEMASONS HALL.

Great Queen Street.

THE FREE-MASONS' HALL

GREAT QUEEN-STREET

THIS plate represents the Hall of the **Grand Lodge** belonging to the Free-Masons of England. It is situated in Great Queen-street, and attached to the Free-Masons' Tavern. It represents the company on the day of the annual dinner, when the female children who are supported by this society, move in procession through the Hall. In pursuance of a resolution of the Grand Lodge, a committee was appointed, in the year 1773, for the purpose of procuring a proper situation to erect a new Hall, suitable to the increased respectability of this society. The committee having succeeded in this object, during the year 1774, and the plan of the new Hall having been prepared and approved of, in the year 1775 a fund of 5000*l.* was raised by a tontine, towards erecting the same.

On the 1st of May 1775, Lord Petre, accompanied by the officers of the Grand Lodge of Masons of England, laid the foundation-stone of the present building, with the following ceremonies:—The grand master, preceded by the grand stewards, past and present grand officers, in their regalia, and an excellent band of martial music, came in procession to the ground, about twelve o'clock; when his lordship, attended by his deputy, wardens, secretary, treasurer, and architect, went down into the trench, and laid the stone with the usual forms. An anthem was then sung by Brother Du Bellamy, and an oration pronounced by Brother James Bottomly. The company then returned in procession in coaches to Leather-Sellers' Hall, where an elegant entertainment was provided. In the month of May 1776, upon Holy Thursday, the new Hall was dedicated with considerable solemnity, a great number of strangers being present, particularly ladies, who were treated with the utmost politeness and attention. The celebrated and at that time the popular Dr. Dodd preached the sermon upon this occasion.

The society of Free and Accepted Masons lays claim to considerable antiquity: the origin of their association was probably nothing more than a meeting of persons in the same profession, led by a similarity of pursuits and habits to associate together, for the common and usual purposes of society. The distinctions of *master*, *prentices*, and *fellow-craft*, naturally occurred, without connecting any thing more with the names than they obviously import; and, in the earlier periods, it is impossible to suppose a society so perfectly modelled, and the degrees of subordination so perfectly arranged, as some sticklers for the antiquity of Free-Masonry contend.

With regard to the great secrets to which these societies pretend, they are supposed to relate either to some extraordinary knowledge in masonry or building, to the particular objects of the institution itself, or the words, signs, or means by which Free-Masons distinguish each other from those who are not initiated. If we are of the elect, it must be obvious, that we ought not to divulge a secret which has been preserved with so much fidelity from age to age; and if we are not of this society (a society distinguished for character as well as number in every country of Europe, and consisting chiefly of princes and persons of the greatest merit and consideration), it must be equally obvious, that we cannot impart to our readers a knowledge that we do not possess. But in either case, we may be allowed to observe, that architecture appears to be the least likely of all the arts or professions, to involve, either in its elements or history, any thing like mystery. According to the Mosaic account, Cain built a city (about 3875 years before the Christian æra), and called it after his son Enoch—DEDICATE or CONSECRATE; that JABAL, the son of Lamech, was the first who erected tents, or movable houses. It must be very clear, that architecture had made considerable progress when Noah constructed the ark, of strength to resist the waters raging over the face of the whole earth. Nineveh and other cities were built by Ashur. The city and tower of Babel, built by the sons of Noah, when they were ordered to disperse, as they were built of brick and cemented with slime, is evidence of considerable improvement in this art, whether we deny or admit with Herodotus and Strabo, that this was the Babylon described by them. It is certainly a fanciful conceit, to attribute the rise of the *Masonic Faculty*, and their universal practice of conversing without speaking, and of knowing each other by signs and tokens, to the dispersion which took place about fifty-three years after the tower of Babel was begun. We know with more certainty, that the practice of masonry, and the knowledge of architecture, were carried to Egypt, where it flourished at least two thousand years before the Christian æra. The cities of Memphis, Heliopolis, and Thebes, the colossal statue of SPHINX, and those huge pyramids, at the remains of which modern travellers still gaze with wonder and astonishment, bear ample testimony of the skill of the Egyptians in architecture, although their knowledge seems to have been confined to a few of its most simple principles, and they appear to have been altogether ignorant of the use of the arch. Indeed, those enormous blocks of granite which composed the walls of their temples, baffle the powers even of modern mechanism, although employed with the utmost skill, and with all the assistance afforded by modern improvements.

In India too we have the remains of architecture (of a different nature), which rival even the powers and skill of the Egyptians: indeed, the knowledge and practice of this art in India, is, by some learned men, supposed to have been anterior to its cultivation in Egypt.

The walls of Nineveh and Babylon, built by the Assyrians, are reckoned among the seven wonders of the world; and as the bricks with which they were built, were cemented with bitumen and straw or reeds, it is presumed they were at this period ignorant of the art of converting stones into lime.

The famous temple of Dagon at Gaza, supported by only two slender columns, not too large for the grasp of Samson, affords no slight proof of the excellence of the Phœnicians, and their progress in the art of building. This city was afterwards repaired by Hiram, King of Tyre, and joined to the temple of Jupiter, that stood upon an island: he likewise beautified the city by two noble temples, one dedicated to Hercules, the other to Astarte.

At this period the artists of Tyre and Sidon were of great celebrity; and the Jews, from their vicinity and intercourse, had the opportunity of learning those arts which were so highly cultivated by their neighbours.

Upon the accession of Solomon to the throne of David, he lost no time in carrying into execution the design of his father, to build a magnificent house for the ark of God; and applied to Hiram, his friend and ally, for assistance. In addition to other aids, Hiram sent him a man of his own name, a Tyrian, of Israelitish descent, who was called Hiram Abbif; a name that is seldom mentioned by *Masons* without the highest respect and enthusiasm.

To carry on this stupendous work with greater ease and speed, Solomon caused all the craftsmen to be numbered, as well natives as foreigners, and classed as follows:

1. Harodim—Princes and rulers	300
2. Menatzchim—Overseers and comforters of the people in working	3300
3. Ghiblim—Stone-squarers, polishers, and sculptors;—and Ishchotzeb—men of hewing;—and Benai—setters, layers, or builders	80000
4. The levy out of Israel appointed to work in Lebanon one month in three, 10,000 every month, under the direction of Adoniram	30000
Besides the Ish Sabbal, or men of burthen, the remains of the Canaanites, amounting to	70000
	183600

From Egypt, architecture travelled into Greece, where the arts, fostered by a genial climate and an ingenious people, soon began to flourish, and at length arrived at a maturity and perfection which have rarely been equalled, and never excelled, by succeeding nations. In the arts of design the Grecians had no rivals; and for a period of at least three centuries (from the time of Solon to the death of Alexander), they maintained a superiority of excellence so great, that the most perfect models of sculpture which exist at this time, are the production of artists who flourished during that period.

The arch appears to have been the invention of the Greeks; and we are certainly indebted to them for the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian orders.

In Greece, no slave was permitted by law to learn the seven sciences of the *freeborn*, viz. 1. Grammar—2. Rhetoric—3. Logic—4. Arithmetic—5. *Geometry*—6. Music—7. Astronomy.

Now as *Geometry* is the foundation of Masonry, it has been ingeniously contended by the advocates for the antiquity of Masonic Societies, that Free-Masons, even in Greece, were distinguished by that appellation, as well as by their lodges; and that these learned people (properly considering that the rules of the beautiful proportions in architecture, were taken from the proportions of the *human body*), wisely determined, that their fine *painters* and *statuaries* should be considered as *architects;* and they were accordingly *accepted as brothers.* It is from this period, therefore, they date the strict union between the *Free* and *Accepted Masons*, which has since subsisted in all *regular lodges.*

The Sicilians, descended from the Greeks, inherited from them a knowledge of architecture, and followed their instructions. The name of Archimedes, who defended Syracuse against the Romans, is held by Masons in little less respect than that of

Euclid. From Sicily we pass to Italy, where the Tuscans had many monuments of taste in architecture: they had learned from the Greeks the three orders; to these they added their own, or the *Tuscan order*, which it does not appear the Greeks had ever been acquainted with. Turrenus, the last king of the Tuscans, bequeathed his kingdom to the Romans, who employed their more skilful neighbours in building the *Capitol*, and likewise the *Cloaca Maxima*, the remains of which are highly curious and extraordinary. The Tuscans are said to have been the inventors of the method of building with small stones and mortar.—It does not appear that the Romans made any great progress in building, or in the style of their architecture, till about the year of Rome 559, when Scipio Asiaticus deprived the king of Syria of all his dominions west of mount Taurus.

It was at this period the Romans became acquainted with the beauties of Grecian architecture, and beheld with astonishment and pleasure the productions of taste, grandeur, and simplicity. But if the Romans seem to have wasted five or six centuries in a perpetual succession of wars, they afterwards cultivated architecture with a zeal and attachment, that promised, and indeed obtained, a high degree of excellence. In the number, variety, and magnificence of their public and private buildings, they successfully compete with their Grecian masters: but in the most flourishing periods of Roman greatness, from the days of Augustus to the reign of Constantine, we shall in vain look for the simplicity of design, and purity of taste, which have rendered the Grecian architecture an object of continued admiration with succeeding ages. To the three orders which they derived from Greece, and the Tuscan, which they learned from their neighbours, the Romans added the *Composite*, or *Roman order.*—The Egyptians, in their vast structures, considered vastness of design, and immensity of parts, more than ornament or utility; and even the Grecians, with all their taste and elegance, seem never to have forgotten, that they were building for posterity. It is to the circumstance of their employing large and weighty stones in the construction of their buildings, jointed with the greatest accuracy, and fitted together without cement, that the remains of them are at this day in a state of so much perfection. But previous to the extinction of the Roman Empire, purity of taste in all the arts of design had rapidly declined, and the imposing magnificence of a grand exterior had long been sacrificed to costly ornaments and interior decoration.

The northern nations of Europe, the Goths, Vandals, &c. had become numerous and powerful, as the Roman power declined; and at length bursting forth like a torrent, invaded and over-ran the fairest provinces of the empire, and at last Italy itself; destroying the finest monuments of arts and architecture, and involving the whole empire of the West in the most gross and profound ignorance. The Mahometans, at no distant period, completed the destruction of the Eastern empire.

The Goths soon became converts to Christianity, and having no principles or rules of architecture, either converted the Roman basilicas into churches, or formed new ones after the models of such as had been erected in the latter ages of the Roman empire. Very little alteration therefore took place during their government; and it requires but little to satisfy the learned and judicious, that the term GOTHIC is very improperly applied to a style of building, which originated at a period long subsequent to the existence of the Goths as a nation. The fact really is, that the style of building which prevailed in Italy during their power, was the *debased Roman.* The restorers of the Grecian style in Italy, and the followers of Palladio and Inigo Jones, with a view to degrade the beautiful edifices which were erected between the early part of the twelfth, and the end of the fifteenth century, stigmatized them all with the epithet of *Gothic.*—The first certain accounts we have of Britain, is from Cæsar's *Commentaries.* He landed in this island about fifty years before the birth of Christ. We hear little more of the Romans till the year 77, when Julius Agricola conquered as far as the isthmus between the friths of Clyde and Forth, which he fortified with a wall of earth against the Picts. A succession of emperors and their lieutenants visited the island, of whom little is necessary to be said, so far as the history of Masonry is concerned, till the time of *Carausius,* who was employed by the joint Emperors Dioclesian and Maximilian against the Saxon pirates. About this period, A.D. 287, Albanus is said to have formed the first grand lodge in Great Britain.*

The Romans continued to interfere in the affairs of Britain during a period of about 486 years, if we reckon from the landing of Cæsar to the departure of the last legion under Gallio, A.D. 430. The northern nations hearing that the Romans were never to return, invaded the south, and ravaged it the more easily, as the southern nations were divided under several kings, until they were united under Vortigern, who, with the consent of his nobles, invited the Saxons of Lower Germany to assist them; which they did, sending more than 2000 troops under Prince Hengist; and having succeeded in driving the Scots and Picts beyond the Humber, determined to settle themselves in the country of their new ally; which, after many battles with the natives, they accomplished, and founded the Heptarchy.

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* The old constitutions affirm, and the old English Masons as firmly believe it, that Carausius employed St. Alban to "environ the city of Verulam with a stone wall, and to "build him a fine palace; for which that British king made St. Alban the steward of his "household, and chief ruler of the realm."

The first Saxon churches were built about the latter end of the fifth, and beginning of the sixth century; among the principal were, the cathedrals of Canterbury and Rochester, St. Paul's London, and St. Peter's Westminster. They appear to have been constructed after models of Roman temples; the style itself was called *Roman*, and the term *Gothic*, as already observed, was not known till many centuries afterwards. The principal entrance was at the west end, into the nave; on each side was an aisle; at the other extremity of the nave was a cross, extending north and south; towards the east was situated the choir: over the center of the cross was usually a tower, and another was generally erected to contain the bells. This style is easily recognized by its semicircular arches and massy pillars, which were either polygonal, square, or circular, and by the three tiers or stories, which divided the side aisles. Mr. Britton, in his *Architectural Antiquities of Great Britain*, has classed the several styles in the following order:—1. Anglo-Saxon—2. Anglo-Norman—3. English—4. Decorated English—5. Highly decorated florid English.*

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* 1. *A.-S.* This will embrace all buildings that were erected between the times of the conversion of the Saxons and the Norman conquest.

2. *A.-N.* by which is meant that style which prevailed from 1066 to 1189, including

From the beginning of Henry VIII. our intercourse with the Italians begat a mixed and debased species of architecture, which continued to disfigure the buildings erected during this and the succeeding reigns of Edward VI. Mary I. and Elizabeth: the latter hearing that Free-Masons had certain secrets which could not be revealed to her, and being jealous of all secret assemblies, she sent an armed force to break up their annual grand lodge at York, on St. John's day, 27th December, 1561.

But the ancient architecture was soon after restored in this country by Inigo Jones, who was born A.D. 1572. His principal works are the Banqueting-room Whitehall, Greenwich, Covent-Garden, Bloomsbury-House (late the Duke of Bedford's), Gunnesbury-House, Wilton-House, &c.

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the reigns of William I. and II. Henry I. Stephen, and Henry II. During this period the arch, from being circular, was slightly pointed, and the heavy pillars were formed into pilastered clusters, which gradually assumed a more elegant and ornamental appearance.

3. *English*, from 1189 to 1272, including the reigns of Richard I. John, and Henry III. At this time pointed and circular arches were frequently mixed in the same building, till the taste for pointed arches becoming more general, uniformity, proportion, and elegance began to prevail; a higher degree of decoration was introduced, and the buttresses formed in stages, diminishing towards the top, and ornamented with pinnacles.

4. *D. E.* from 1272 to 1461, including the reigns of Edward I. II. and III. Richard II. Henry IV. V. and VI. During this period the east and west windows were considerably enlarged, and carried up almost the whole height of the vaulting and nearly the breadth of the nave, and were highly ornamented with painted glass. The pillars became more tall and slender, the columns which formed the cluster were of different diameters, and the capitals more complicated. The vaulting was richly studded with knots of foliage. The canopies were purfled, and terminated with a rich knot of flowers. The flying buttresses were formed on segments of circles, uniting at the same time lightness and strength.

5. *H. d. f. E.* from 1461 to 1509, including the reigns of Edward IV. V. Richard III. and Henry VII.

To Inigo Jones succeeded Sir Christopher Wren, who was principal architect for rebuilding the city of London, and the parochial churches enacted by Parliament to be built in lieu of those destroyed at the great fire. But the work that will perpetuate his name as an architect, is St. Paul's Cathedral, a work inferior only *in size* to St. Peter's at Rome. "This noble "structure, began in the year 1675, was finished A.D. 1710, by "one architect, and under one Bishop of London (Dr. Henry "Compton): whereas St. Peter's was 145 years in building, "carried on by twelve architects, successively assisted by the "policy and interest of the Papal See, the ready acquisition of "marble, and attended by the best artists of the world in "sculpture, statuary, painting, and mosaic work, during the reign "of nineteen popes."

In following the progress of architecture from the rude designs of the first cottage, through the several æras of the massy Egyptian, the splendid Jewish, the elegant Grecian, the more varied Roman, the heavy Saxon, the debased Italian, the ornamented English, the revival of the ancient styles, up to the present age of motley buildings, we have in fact traced the progress of Masonic Societies, which have fluctuated between the extremes of princely patronage and political persecution, as the caprice, ignorance, or suspicions of those who possessed the power, led them either to encourage or depreciate establishments of this nature. Wicked and designing men there are in all numerous societies; but, notwithstanding the reflections which have been thrown out upon Free-Masons, and the object of their institutions (as supposed to be connected with the projects of certain *Illuminati*), so far as we are able to judge of human societies by the common means of human observation, the Free-Masons appear rather to merit the encouragement and protection of all good governments, than to be branded as objects of suspicion. We shall add, for the entertainment, and possibly for the information, of some of our readers, *certayne questyons, wyth awnsweres to the same, concernynge the mystery of Maçonrye; wrytenne by the hande of Kynge Henrye the Sixthe of the name, and faithfullye copyed by me John Leylande, antiquarius, by the cammaunde of His Highnesse. They be as followethe:*

Quest. What mote ytt be?

Answ. Ytt beeth the *skylle* of nature, the understondynge of the *myghte* that ys *hereynne*, and its sondrye *wreckynges; sonderlyche*, the skylle of *rectenyngs*, of waightes, and *metynges*, and the treu manere of *faconnynge* all thynges for mannes use, *headlye*, dwellynges, and buyldyngs of alle kinds, and alle odher thynges that *make gudde* to manne.

Quest. Where dyd ytt begynne?

Answ. Ytt dyd begynne with the fyrste menne yn the Este, which were before the ffyrste manne of the Weste, and comynge westlye, ytt hathe brought *herwyth* alle comfortes to the *wylde* and comfortlesse.

Quest. Who dyd brynge ytt westlye?

Answ. The Venetians, who being grate merchaundes, comed ffyrst ffromme the Este *ynn* Venetia, ffor the *commodytye* of marchandysynge *beithe* Este and Weste, by the Redde and *Myddleyonde* Sees.

Quest. Howe comede ytt yn Engelonde?

Answ. Peter Gower, a Grecian, journeyedde ffor *kunnynge* yn Egypte, and yn Syria, and yn everyche lond *whereas* the

Venetians hadde plauntedde Maçonrye, and *wynnage* entraunces yn al lodges of Maçonnes, he lerned muche, and retournedde, and *woned* yn Grecia Magna *wachsynge*, and becommynge a myghtye *wyseacre*, and gratelyche renowned, and *her* he framed a grate lodge at Groton, and maked manye Maçonnes, some whereoffe dyd journeye in Fraunce, and maked manye Maçonnes, wherefromme, yn processe of tyme, the arte passed yn Engelonde.

Quest. Dothe Maçonnes descouer there arts unto odhers?

Answ. Peter Gower, when he journeyedde to lernne, was ffyrste made, and anonne techedde; evenne soe shulde all odhers beyn *recht.* Natheless, Maçonnes haueth *always* yn everyche tyme from tyme to tyme communicatedde to mankynde soche of *her* secrettes as generallyche myghte be usefulle; they haueth keped backe soche *allein* as shulde be harmfulle yff they commed yn euylle haundes, *oder* soche às ne myght be *holpynge* wythouten the techynges to be joynedde herwythe in the lodge; oder soche as do bynde the *Freres* more strongelyche together, bey the proffyte and commodytye comynge to the *Confrerie* herfromme.

Quest. Whatte arts haueth the Maçonnes techedde mankynde?

Answ. The arts AGRICULTURA, ARCHITECTURA, ASTRONOMIA, GEOMETRIA, NUMERES, MUSICA, POESIE, KYMISTRYE, GOVERNMENTE, and RELYGYONNE.

Quest. Howe commeth Maçonnes more teachers than odher menne?

Answ. The *hemselfe* haueth allein in arte of fyndynge neue artes, whyche art the ffyrste Maçonnes receaued from Godde; by the whyche they fyndethe what artes *hem plesethe*, and the treu way of techynge the same. Whatt odher menne doethe ffynde out, ys *onelyche* by chaunce, and herefore but lytle I tro.

Quest. Whatte dothe the Maçonnes concele and hyde?

Answ. They concelethe the art of ffynding new arts, and thatt ys for here own proffytte, and *preise:* they concelethe the art of kepynge secrettes, thatt so the worlde mayeth nothinge concele from them. They concelethe the art of *wunderwerckynge*, and of *sore sayinge thynges to comme*, thatt so thay same artes may not be usedde of the wyckedde to an euylle ende; they also concelethe the arte of chaunges, the *wey* of wynnynge the facultye of *Abrac*, the skille of becomynge gude and parfyghte wythouten the holpynges of fere and hope; and the universalle longage of Maçonnes.

Quest. Wylle he teche me thay same artes?

Answ. Ye shalle be techedde yff ye be werthye, and able to lerne.

Quest. Dothe alle Maçonnes *kunne* more than odher menne?

Answ. Not so. Thay onlyche haueth *recht* and *occasyonne* more than odher menne to kunne, butt many doeth fale yn capacity, and many more doth want industrye, thatt ys *pernecessarye* for the gaynyenge all kunnynge.

Quest. Are Maçonnes gudder menne than odhers?

Answ. Some Maçonnes are not so vertuous as some other menne; but, yn the moste parte, thay be more gude than thay would be if thay war not Maçonnes.

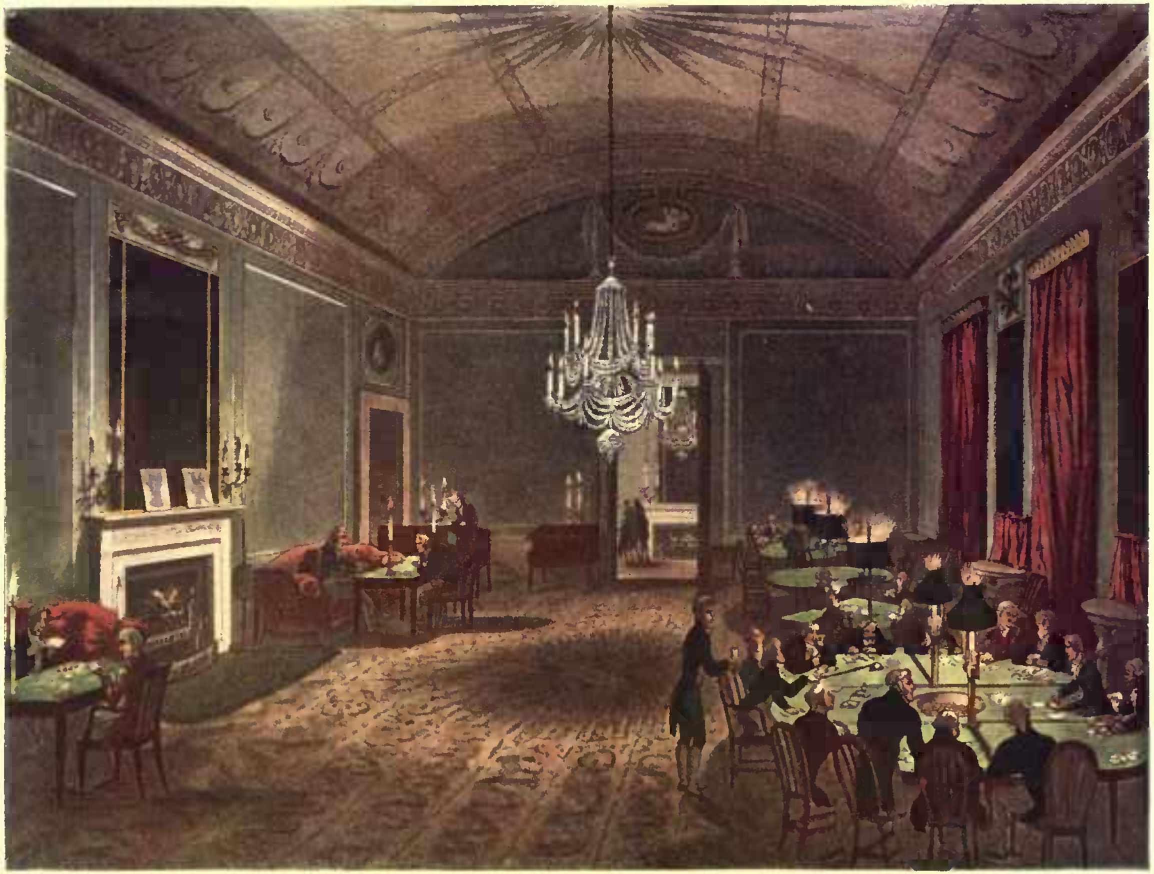
Quest. Doth Maçonnes love eidther odher myghtyly as beeth sayde?

Answ. Yea verylyche, and yt may not odherwise be: for gude menne, and true, kennynge eidher odher to be soche, doeth always love the more as thay be more gude.

GAMING-HOUSE

THIS print is a very good representation of the great room at *Brookes's Subscription-House*, in St. James's-street. The house was built by the late Mr. Brookes, about the year 1777, for the express purpose of accommodating the political club which had been formed some years before that period, under the tutelar auspices of the late Mr. Charles Fox, at Almack's. The room is 37 feet long, 22 wide, and 25 high. The architect was Mr. Henry Holland. This club is known by the title of *Brookes's*, and is honoured by the names of the Prince of Wales, the Dukes of York and Clarence, and the principal nobility and gentry, who have usually appeared in the ranks of opposition with the late Mr. Fox. The number of its members is limited to four hundred and fifty; the candidate for admission must be nominated by a member, and his name exposed in a list for that purpose at least one week before the ballot, which can only take place during the meeting of Parliament, and when at least twelve members are present. A single black ball is sufficient to exclude. The Royal Family do not undergo this ceremony for admission, and they are not competent to exercise the invidious power of voting at the election of other members.

The business of the club is managed by a committee of six



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt et sculpt

GREAT SUBSCRIPTION ROOM at BROOKS'S,

St. James's Street.

gentlemen, who are chosen annually. All new rules proposed are ballotted for. The members of this club are permitted by courtesy to belong to the clubs at Bath, and also to Miles's, and other respectable clubs, without being ballotted for. The subscription is 11 guineas *per annum.* The game of *hazard* is seldom or ever played, and there is no billiard-table. The present fashionable games are *quinze*, *wist*, *piquet*, and *maccaw.*

This club has continued at Brookes's for upwards of thirty years, and is more properly an association of noblemen and gentlemen, connected by politics, than gaming: it is not to be denied, that a few years since this destructive propensity was carried beyond all the purposes of amusement or pleasure, and that some of our great popular characters have been accused of indulging a most inordinate passion for it; but the taste for play seems, in a considerable degree, to have abated, although some men, of sanguine tempers and ardent dispositions, still continue partial to this amusement. During the time this club met at Almack's, a regular book was kept of the wagers laid by the different members, as well as of the sums won or lost at play, which were carried to the accounts of the respective parties with all the forms of mercantile precision. We are old enough to remember the circumstances which gave rise to some of these wagers; which, as they shew the opinions entertained by persons who shone so conspicuously in politics, upon the particular subjects to which they allude, may be considered at least as interesting as some of the *Ana* with which the public have been entertained: we shall therefore insert a few.

"*March* 11, 1774, *Almack's.* Lord Clermont has given Mr. Crawford ten guineas upon the condition of receiving 500*l.* from him whenever Mr. Charles Fox shall be worth 100,000*l.* clear of debts.

"Lord Northington bets Mr. C. Fox, *June* 4, 1774, that he (Mr. C. F.) is not called to the bar before this day four years.

"*March* 11, 1775. Lord Bolingbroke gives a guinea to Mr. Charles Fox, and is to receive a thousand from him whenever the debt of this country amounts to 171 millions. Mr. Fox is not to pay the 1000*l.* till he is one of his Majesty's cabinet.

"*April* 7, 1792. Mr. Sheridan bets Lord Lauderdale and Lord Thanet, twenty-five guineas each, that Parliament will not consent to any more lotteries after the present one voted to be drawn in February next."

Perhaps no invention has been prostituted from its original purpose more than card-playing.

Cards were at first for benefits design'd;
Sent to amuse, and not enslave the mind:
But from such wise end they must soon depart,
From this principle of the human heart,
Which not in pleasure's self can pleasure find,
Unless it comes with agitation join'd;
Which, basking warm in Fortune's sunshine clear,
Sighs for the shifting clouds of hope and fear;
And tir'd with looking on the listless deep,
When lull'd by summer gales to silver sleep,
Would rather far the tempest's fury brave,
When danger rides on ev'ry foaming wave.

The honour of their first discovery is contended for by two nations, the French and Spanish. From the materials of which cards have always been made, they are supposed to have been invented subsequent to the days of Charlemagne. In the three

Essays on the "ANTIQUITY OF CARD-PLAYING," *(Archæologia, vol. VIII.)* the pretensions of the Spaniards to this discovery seem to be supported. Others, on the contrary, attribute it to Jaquemin Grigonneur, a French painter, who is said to have made them with a view to divert the melancholy which Charles the Sixth of France had fallen into, about the year 1390. Those who support this supposition, contend that they were not in use before that period:

1. Because no cards are to be seen in any painting, sculpture, tapestry, &c. more ancient; but are represented in many works of ingenuity since that age.

2. No prohibitions relative to cards are mentioned in the king's edicts, although but a few years previous, a most severe one was published against all sports and pastimes *(by name)*, in order that the people might exercise themselves in shooting with bows and arrows, and be in a condition to oppose the English.

3. In all the ecclesiastical canons prior to the said time, there occurs no mention of cards; although twenty years after that date, card-playing was interdicted the clergy by a Gallican synod.

4. Because about this time is found, in the account-book of the king's cofferer, the following charges:

"Paid for a pack of painted leaves, bought for the king's amusement, 3 liv.

"Paid fifty-six shillings of Paris to Jaquemin Grigonneur, the painter, for three packs of cards, gilded with gold, and painted with divers colours and divers devices, to be carried to the king for his amusement."

In the synodical canons before alluded to, they are called "*pagellæ pictæ*," little painted leaves.

5. Because about thirty years after this, came out a severe edict against cards in France; and another by Emanuel, Duke of Savoy, only permitting this pastime to the ladies "*pro spinulis*," for pins and needles.

By the four suits were intended to be represented the four estates.

By the *cœurs* (hearts) are meant the *gens de cœur*, choice men and ecclesiastics; and the Spaniards have *copas*, or *chalices*, instead of hearts.

By the ends or points of lances are represented the nobility, or first military men; the Spaniards have *espadas* (swords), in lieu of pike-heads, and our ignorance of the meaning of the figure induced us to call them spades.

By the diamonds are designed the class of citizens, merchants, and tradesmen, *carreaux* (square stones, tiles, or the like); the Spaniards have a coin, *dineros*, which answers to it; and the Dutch call the French word *carreaux*, *sticneen*, stones, and diamonds, from the form.

Treste, the trefoil leaf, or clover-grass (corruptly called clubs), alludes to the husbandmen and peasants. How this suit came to be called clubs, I cannot explain, unless borrowing the game from the Spaniards, who have *bastos* (staves or clubs), instead of the trefoil, we give the Spanish signification to the French figure.

The four kings are *David*, *Alexander*, *Cæsar*, and *Charles*, representing the four celebrated monarchies of the Jews, Greeks, Romans, and the Franks under Charlemagne.

By the queens are intended *Argine* (which word is an anagram of *regina*), *Esther*, *Judith*, and *Pallas*, names which the French still retain on their cards, and are typical of *birth*, *piety*, *fortitude*, and *wisdom*.

By the knaves are designed the servants to the knights; for knave originally meant servant, and in an old translation of the Bible, St. Paul is called the *knave of Christ;* for pages and valets, now indiscriminately used by various persons, were formerly only allowed to persons of quality *(escuiers)*, shield or armour-bearers. Others again have fancied, that the knights themselves were designed by the knaves; because *Hogier* and *Lahire*, two names on the French cards, were famous knights at the time cards were supposed to have been invented.

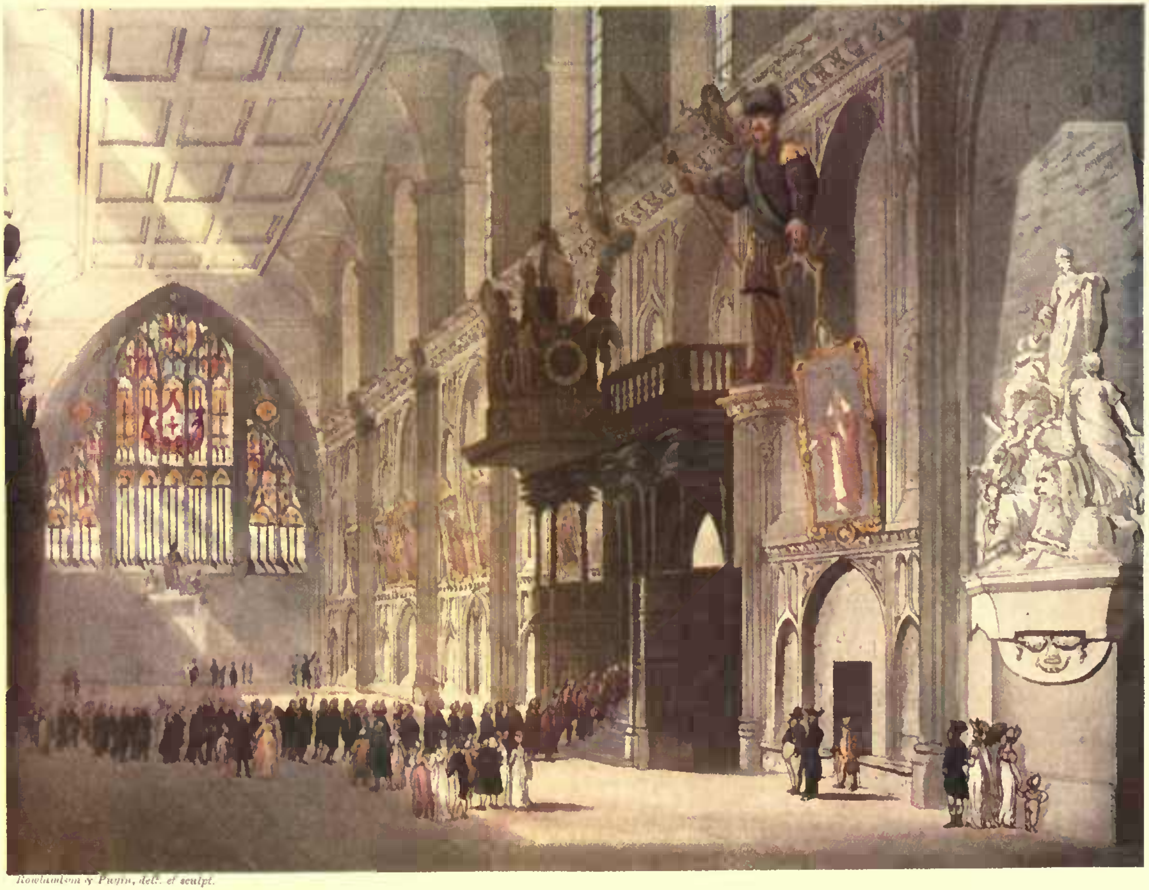
The ruinous vice of gaming, so destructive in all places, and so difficult, if not impossible, to be entirely restrained in any, has engaged the attention of legislators in all the countries of Europe. In France, Germany, and every part of the Continent, the attempt has been made, and made in vain. This very circumstance, perhaps, excited in a higher degree the indignation of the Emperor Joseph (who would not admit any difficulty to stand in the way of his reforming plans); he therefore prohibited all games of chance whatever, under the severest penalties; and, in the year 1786, this law was so rigidly enforced, that eleven officers of grenadiers were in a single instance, not only deprived of their commissions, but degraded to the humiliating condition of serving in the ranks as common soldiers; a punishment which had till then been considered as peculiar to the Russian service. In the year 1788, the Prince Bishop of Liege issued a proclamation against gaming in any part of his dominions, but particularly at Spa, under the penalty of 200 gold florins for the first offence, and two years imprisonment for the second.

By the 12th George II. the games of *faro*, *hazard*, &c. are declared to be lotteries, subjecting the persons who keep them to a penalty of two hundred pounds, and those who play, to fifty pounds. One witness only is necessary to prove the offence before a justice of the peace, who forfeits ten pounds if he neglects to do his duty. By the 8th George I. the keeper of a faro-table may be prosecuted for a lottery, where the penalty is *five hundred pounds*. By the statute 16th Charles II. c. 7. if any person, by playing or betting, lose more than one hundred pounds at one time, he shall not be compellable to pay, and the winner shall forfeit treble the amount. The statute 9th Anne, c. 14. makes all bonds and other securities given for money won at play, or money lent at the time to play withal, utterly void; and mortgages, or a like consideration, to be and enure to the heir of the mortgager: and if any person lose more than ten pounds at play, he may sue the winner, and recover it back; and if he does not, any other person may sue the winner for treble the sum so lost, and *the winner shall also be deemed infamous*, and suffer such corporal punishment as in case of wilful perjury. By the statute 18th George II. c. 34. this statute is farther enforced, and its deficiencies supplied; and if any person be convicted, upon information or indictment, of winning or losing ten or twenty pounds within twenty-four hours, he shall forfeit five times the sum. Such has been the anxiety of the legislature to suppress faro-tables, and other games of chance, that the several penalties have been inflicted, founded on the fullest conviction of the pernicious consequences of such practices: "and yet," says Mr. Colquhoun (in his treatise on the *Police of the Metropolis*), "houses are opened, under the sanction of high-sounding names, where an indiscriminate mixture of all ranks are to be found, from the finished sharper, to the raw inexperienced youth; and where all those evils exist in full force, which it was the object of the legislature to remove."

When a species of gambling, ruinous to the morals and to the fortunes of the younger part of the community, who move in the middle and higher ranks of life, is suffered to be carried on in direct opposition to a positive statute, surely blame must be attached somewhere. When such abominable practices are encouraged and sanctioned by high-sounding names, when sharpers and black-legs find an easy introduction into the houses of persons of fashion, who assemble in multitudes together for the purpose of playing at the odious and detestable games of hazard, which the legislature has stigmatized with such marks of reprobation, it is time for the civil magistrate to step forward, and to feel, that in doing that duty which the laws of his country impose on him, he is perhaps saving hundreds of families from ruin and destruction, and preserving to the infants of thoughtless and deluded parents that property which is their birthright.

Tacitus has observed (*de Mor. Germ. c.* 24.) that, by a wonderful diversity of nature, the Germans are by turns the most indolent and the most restless of mankind; they delight in sloth, they detest tranquillity: the languid soul, oppressed with its own weight, anxiously required some new and powerful sensation, and war and gaming were the gratifications most suited to this temper of mind. In the dull intervals of peace, they were immoderately addicted to deep gaming and excessive drinking; both of which, by different means, alike relieved them from the pain arising from want of employment: they gloried in passing whole days and nights in this tumult of the passions, and the blood of friends and relations often stained their numerous assemblies. Such was the point of honour among these barbarians, or rather depraved obstinacy, as Tacitus calls it *(ea est in pravâ pervicaciâ, ipsi fidem vocant)*, that the desperate gamester, who had staked his person and liberty on the throw of the die, patiently submitted to the decision of fortune, and suffered himself to be bound hand and foot, and sold into remote and cruel slavery, by his weaker and more lucky antagonist.

We shall conclude this article by an account of a determination (Michaelmas term 1760), in a cause which had been long depending between the executors of Sir John Bland and a French gentleman. The case was nearly thus: Sir J. B. had lost at play about 350*l.* and borrowed 300*l.* more for the same purpose of gaming; afterwards, for the whole sum he drew a bill of exchange upon himself payable in London. According to the laws of England, the security for the whole became void; but the laws of France make a distinction between a debt incurred at play, and money lent for the purpose of gaming, the latter being recoverable as if lent for any other purpose: hence the cause became curious, and gave occasion to very ingenious arguments. It seemed reasonable, on one hand, to pay a regard to the law of France in a matter transacted at Paris; and, on the other hand, it was urged, that the lender of the money accepted the payment in London, and therefore became subject to the law of England. It was at length, however, judiciously determined to set aside the *whole security;* but, at the same time, to establish the contract for the 300*l.* as valid.



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt. et sculpt.

GUILDHALL.

GUILDHALL

THE Guildhall of this vast city stands at the end of a street running northward from Cheapside. Before the year 1411, the court-hall, or *bury*, as it was called, was held at Aldermansbury, so denominated from their meeting there. Stow remembered its ruins, and says, that, in his days, it was used as Carpenters'-Hall. It was succeeded by a new one, began in 1411, and finished in twenty years, by voluntary contributions, by sums raised for pardons and offences, and by fines. It was considerably damaged by the fire of London, but was soon repaired and beautified, at the expence of 2500*l.*

The entrance into this building is by a large gate under a Gothic arch, over which rises the new front, erected in the year 1789; it consists of four fluted pilasters, between which are Gothic windows. In the space above the great door, there are two series of windows, above which is the city motto, "*Domine, dirige nos.*" The top of the building is crowned with the city arms. In the side compartments are four ranges of windows, and the top is terminated by reversed arches. The pilasters are higher than the other parts of the front, and are crowned with turrets in two stages; the center one is decorated with the mace, and the other two with the city sword. This front terminates the end of King-street. The length of the Hall is 153 feet, its breadth 48, and its height 55; so that it is capable of holding thousands of people: elections, and every species of city business, are transacted here.

Within are portraits of some of our judges, who frequently try causes under this roof. I must direct the reader's attention to twelve of that order of peculiar merit: these are the portraits of the able and virtuous Sir *Matthew Hale*, and his eleven cotemporary judges; who, after the dreadful calamity of 1666, regulated the rebuilding of the city of London by such wise rules, as to prevent the endless train of vexatious law-suits which might have ensued, and been little less chargeable than the fire itself had been. This was principally owing to Sir Matthew Hale, who conducted the business, and sat with his brethren in Clifford's Inn, to compose all differences between landlord and tenant. These portraits were painted by Michael Wright, a good painter, in the time of Charles II. and James II. and who died in the year 1700. It was designed that Sir Peter Lely should have painted these pictures, but he fastidiously refused to wait on the judges at their chambers. Wright received sixty pounds apiece for his work. In the year 1779, they were found to be in so bad a condition, as to make it an even question with the committee of city lands, whether they should be continued in their places, or committed to the flames. To the eternal honour of Alderman Townsend, his vote decided in favour of their preservation. He recommended Mr. Roma, who, by his great skill in repairing pictures, rescued them from the rage of time, so that they may remain another century, a proof of the gratitude of our capital. Among them is the portrait of Lord *Campden*, who, when chief justice of the Common Pleas, obtained this mark of esteem from the city by his decision against the legality of general warrants.

Facing the entrance are two tremendous figures, by some named *Gog* and *Magog;* by Stow, an *ancient Briton* and *Saxon.* These enormous figures are in the Roman warlike dress, and have laurel crowns on their heads. The one on the right leans on a small shield, on which is emblazoned a black eagle, on a field *Or*, and bears a long weapon, the *lang-bard* of the Germans, used in guarding the halls of the great in ancient times: the weapon, and the arms on the shield, are said to denote this figure to be intended to represent a Saxon. The other, which is said to represent an ancient Briton, has a sword by his side, and a bow and quiver on his back. In his right hand is a long pole, with a ball full of spikes suspended from its top, a weapon which had been in use among our ancestors. The origin and signification of these colossal figures, have given rise to many ingenious conjectures, the most reasonable of which appears to be that which considers them as types of municipal power; such statues being found in the places of judgment in many parts of Germany, where they are called *weich-bilds*, and are set up as symbolic of the privileges of the town, and protectors of its freedom; *wich* signifying town, and *bild*, a secure or privileged place. The Roman costume is not so easily accounted for. It was probably adopted by the sculptor for reasons similar to those which induce *sculptors of the present day*, to represent *modern heroes* in the *dress of the ancients;* an absurdity which has continued too long, and cannot be got rid of too soon.

At the bottom of the room is a marble group, of good workmanship (with *London* and *Commerce*, whimpering like two marred children), executed, soon after the year 1770, by Mr. Bacon. The principal figure was also a giant in his day, the *raw* *head and bloody bones* to the good folks at St. James's, which, while remonstrances were in fashion, annually haunted the court in terrific forms. The eloquence dashed in the face of majesty, alas! proved in vain. The spectre is here condemned to silence; but his patriotism may be read by his admiring fellow-citizens, as long as the melancholy marble can retain the tale of the affrighted times.

The first time this Hall was used on festive occasions, was by Sir John Shaw, goldsmith, knighted in the field of Bosworth. After building the essentials of good kitchens and other offices, in the year 1500, he gave here the mayor's feast, which before had usually been done in Grocers'-Hall. None of their bills of fare have reached us, but doubtlessly they were very magnificent: they at length grew to such excess, that, in the time of Philip and Mary, a sumptuary law was made, to restrain the expence both of provisions and liveries: but, I suspect, as it lessened the honour of the city, it was not long observed; for, in 1554, the city thought proper to renew the order of council, by way of reminding their fellow-citizens of their relapse into luxury. Amongst the great feasts given here on public occasions, may be reckoned that given in 1612, on occasion of the unhappy marriage of the Prince Palatine with Elizabeth, daughter of James I. who, in defiance of the remonstrances of his better-judging father-in-law, rushed on the usurpation of the dominion of another monarch, and brought great misery on himself and his amiable spouse. The next was in 1641, when Charles I. returned from his imprudent and inefficacious journey into Scotland. In the midst of the most factious and turbulent times, when every engine was set to work to annihilate the regal power, the city, under its lord mayor, Sir William Acton, made a feast unparalleled in history for its magnificence. All external respect was paid to his majesty; the last he ever experienced in the inflamed city. Of this entertainment we know no more, than that it consisted of five hundred dishes: but of that which was given in our happier days to his present majesty, in the mayoralty of Sir Samuel Fludyer, the bill of fare* is given us. This I print; and, as a parallel to it, that of another royal feast, given in 1487, at Whitehall, on occasion of the coronation of Elizabeth, queen of Henry VII. whom he treats with characteristical economy, notwithstanding a kingdom was her dower.—PENNANT.

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* *The King's Table*, *George* III. 1761.

FIRST SERVICE.

	£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
12 Dishes of olio, turtle, pottages, and soups	24	2	0	1 Ditto tondron devaux à la Dauzie	2	2	0
12 Ditto of fish, viz. John Dories, red mullets, &c.	24	2	0	1 Harrico	1	1	0
7 Ditto roast venison	10	0	0	1 Dish popiets of veale glasse	1	4	0
3 Westphalia hams, consume and richly ornamented	6	6	0	2 Ditto fillets of lamb à la comte	2	2	0
2 Dishes of pullets à la royale	2	2	0	2 Ditto comports of squabs	2	2	0
2 Ditto of tongues Espagnole	3	3	0	2 Ditto fillets of beef Marinate	3	0	0
6 Dishes chicken à la reine	6	6	0	2 Ditto of mutton à la Memorance	2	2	0
				32 Ditto of fine vegetables	16	16	0

SECOND SERVICE.

	£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
6 Dishes fine ortolans	25	4	0	4 Dishes woodcocks	4	4	0
10 Ditto quails	15	0	0	2 Ditto pheasants	3	3	0
10 Ditto notts	30	0	0	4 Ditto teal	3	3	0
1 Ditto wheat-ears	1	1	0	4 Ditto snipes	3	3	0
1 Goodevau patte	1	10	0	2 Ditto partridges	2	2	0
1 Perrigoe pie	1	10	0	2 Ditto patties royal	3	0	0
1 Dish pea-chicks	1	1	0				

The roof of the Great Hall is flat, and divided into pannels: the walls on the north and south sides are adorned with four Gothic demi-pillars, painted white with blue veins, and gilt

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THIRD SERVICE.

		£.	s.	d.			£.	s.	d.
1	Ragout royal	1	1	0	5	Dishes mushrooms au blanc	2	12	6
8	Dishes of fine green morells	8	8	0	1	Ditto cardons à la Bejamée	0	10	6
10	Ditto fine green peas	10	10	0	1	Ditto knots of eggs	0	10	6
3	Ditto asparagus heads	2	2	0	1	Ditto ducks' tongues	0	10	6
3	Ditto fine fat livers	1	11	6	3	Ditto of pith	1	11	6
3	Ditto fine combs	1	11	6	1	Ditto of truffles in oil	0	10	6
5	Ditto green truffles	5	5	0	4	Ditto of pullets	2	2	0
5	Ditto artichokes à la Provinciale	2	12	6	2	Ditto ragout mille	2	2	0

FOURTH SERVICE.

2	Curious ornamented cakes	2	12	0	12	Ditto clear marbrays	14	8	0
12	Dishes of blanc-mangers, representing different figures	12	12	0	16	Dishes fine cut pastry	16	16	0
					2	Ditto mille feuilles	1	10	6

THE CENTER OF THE TABLE.

1	Grand pyramid of demies of shell-fish of various sorts	2	2	0	2	Grand epergnes filled with fine pickles, and garnished round with plates of sorts, as laspicks, rolards, &c.	6	6	0
32	Cold things of sorts, viz. temples, shapes, landscapes in jellies, savoury cakes, and almond gothes	33	12	0		Total of the King's Table	374	1	0

The whole of this day's entertainment cost the city 6,898*l.* 5*s.* 4*d.* A committee had been appointed out of the body of aldermen, who most deservedly received the thanks of the lord mayor and whole body corporate, for the skilful discharge of this important trust. The feast consisted of four hundred and fourteen dishes, besides the dessert; and the hospitality of the city, and the elegance of the entertainment, might vie with any that had ever preceded.

capitals, upon which are the royal arms, and those of Edward the Confessor.

Nearly fronting the gate, are nine or ten steps, leading to the

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Nuptial Table, *Henry* VII.

FIRST COURSE.

A warner byfor the course.
Sheldes of brawn in armor.
Frumetye with venison.
Bruet riche.
Hart powdered graunt chars.
Fesant intram de royall.
Swan with chawdron.
Capons of high goe.
Lampervey in galantine.
Crane with cretney.
Pik in Latymer sawce.
Heronusew with his sique.
Carpe in foile.
Kid reversed.
Perche in jelaye depte.
Coneys of High Grece.
Moten royall richly garnyshed.
Valance baked.
Custarde royall.
Tarte poleyn.
Leyse damask.
Frutt synoper.
Frutt formage.
A soteltie, with writing of balads.

SECOND COURSE.

A warner byfor the course.
Joly ypocras.
Mamone, with lezenges of golde.
Pekok in hakell.
Bittowre.
Feswante.
Browes.
Egrets in beorwetye.
Cokks.
Partrieche.
Sturgyn freshe fewell.
Plovers.
Rabet sowker.
Seyll in fenyn entirely served richely.
Red shankks.
Snytes.
Quayles.
Larkes in graylede.
Creves de Endence.
Venesone in paste royall.
Quince baked.
Marche payne royall.
A cold bake mete flourishede.
Lethe ciprus.
Lethe rube.
Fruter augeo.
Fruter mouniteque.
Castells of jelly in temple-wise made.
A soteltie.

Lord Mayor's Court, over which is a balcony, supported at each end by four iron pillars, in the form of palm-trees; by these is a small inclosure on each side on the top of the steps, used on some occasions as offices for clerks to write in. The Chamberlain's Office is at the right hand at the head of the steps. In the front

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These sotelties, or subtilities, as they were called, were the ornamental part of the dessert, and were extremely different from those in present use. In the enthronization feast of Archbishop Warenham, on March 9th, 1504, the first course was preceded by a warner, conveyed upon a rounde boorde of eight panes, with eight towers embattled, and made with flowers, standynge on every towere a bedil in his habite, with his staffe; and in the same boorde, first, the king sytting in his Parliament, with his lordes about hym in their robes, and Saint Wylliam, lyke an archbishop, sytting on the ryght hand of the kyng: then the Chancellor of Oxford, with other doctors about him, presented the said Lord Wylliam, kneeling, in a doctor's habite, unto the kyng, with his commend of vertue and cunnynge, &c. &c. And on the third boorde of the same warner, the Holy Ghoste appeared, with bryght beams proceeding from hym of the gifts of grace toward the sade lord of the feaste. This is a specimen of the ancient sotelties. This was a Lenten feaste of the most luxurious kind: many of the sotelties were suited to the occasion, and of the legendary nature, others historical; but all, without doubt, contrived "with great cunnynge."

To these scenes of luxury and gluttony, let me oppose the simple fare at the feast of wax-chandlers, on October 28th, 1478. These were a flourishing company in the days of old, when gratitude to saints called so frequently for lights. How many thousands of wax-candles were consumed on these occasions, and what quantities the expiatory offerings of private persons, none can enumerate. Candlemas-day wasted thousands, and those all blessed by the priests, and adjured in solemn terms: "I adjure thee, O waxen creature, that thou repel the devil and his sprights," &c. &c. Certainly this company, which was incorporated in 1484, might have afforded a more delicate feast, than

	s.	*d.*
Two loins of mutton, and two loins of veal	1	4
A loin of beef	0	4
A leg of mutton	0	2½
A pig	0	4
A capon	0	6
A coney	0	2
One dozen of pigeons	0	7
A hundred eggs	0	8½
A goose	0	6
A gallon of red wine	0	8
A kilderkin of ale	0	8
	6	0

of this balcony is a clock, on the frame of which are carved the four cardinal virtues, with the figure of *Time* on the top, and a cock on each side of him. At the east end are the king's arms, between the pictures of his Majesty King George II. and Queen Caroline; close by the first is Queen Anne, and by the last his Majesty King George I.: and at the same end of the Hall, but on the north and south sides, are the pictures of King William III. and Queen Mary, fronting each other.

On the east end of the Hall is held the Court of Hustings weekly, and occasionally that of the Exchequer; and before the Hustings, is held the Court of Conscience. At the west end is held alternately the Sheriff's Court for the Poultry and Wood-street counters. Opposite to the Chamberlain's Office, already mentioned as situated up the steps underneath the giants, is the Office of Auditors of the City Accounts; within which is the Lord Mayor's Court-Office, where the lord chief justice occasionally sits at *nisi prius*. On the west side of the Mayor's Court-Office is the Court of Orphans, where the lord chief justice of the Common Pleas occasionally sits: adjoining to this court, on the north, is the old Council-Chamber, now used by the commissioners of bankrupts; contiguous to it is the new Council-Chamber. Beneath the Mayor's Court is the Town-Clerk's Office, where are deposited the city archives. To the east and north, are the residences of the chamberlain and town-clerk; near which are two rooms, wherein the business of bankrupts is dispatched. Contiguous to the north-west is the kitchen; in the porch is the Comptroller's Office, and over it the Irish Chamber. Over the piazzas on the west, are the Common Serjeant's, Remembrancer's, and City Solicitor's Offices.

Adjacent to Guildhall, is Guildhall Chapel or College, a Gothic building, founded by Peter Fanlore, Adam Francis, and Henry Frowick, citizens, about the year 1299. The establishment was a warden, seven priests, three clerks, and four choristers. Edward VI. granted it to the mayor and commonalty of the city of London. Here used to be service once a week, and also at the election of the mayor, and before the mayor's feast, to deprecate indigestions and all plethoric evils. At present divine service is discontinued, the chapel being used as a justice-room.

Adjoining to it once stood a fair library, furnished with books belonging to Guildhall, built by the executors of the famous Whittington. Stow says, that "the Protector Somerset sent to borrow some of the books, with a promise of restoring them; three carries were laden with them, but they never more were returned."

Guildhall is at the end of a tolerable vista, which shews the building to some advantage: the entrance would have been better at the lower end than in the middle, for by this means all the beauty of the perspective is lost. The ascent of steps across the Hall not being opposite the gate, as it ought to have been, is another material defect. A noble front in the situation of Guildhall, would have had an advantage hardly to be met with elsewhere, and afforded the architect a fine opportunity of displaying his genius: this opportunity was lost, or at least neglected, when the alteration was made in the year 1789.

Soon after William the Conqueror had obtained possession of London, he paid a visit to his Norman dominions; and at his return, in the second year of his reign, he was received by the citizens with a solemn procession: in return for which, he granted them a charter, written in their own language, which consists of four lines and a quarter, beautifully written in Saxon characters upon a slip of parchment of about six inches in length and one inch in breadth. This charter is preserved in the city archives with the utmost care and attention. The seal is of white wax, which being broken, the pieces are carefully secured in an orange-coloured silken bag: on one side the Conqueror is on horseback, on the reverse he is sitting in a chair of state. The rim of the seal being almost destroyed, the only letters which remain are M. WILL. The following is an accurate translation:

"William the King greets William the Bishop, and Godfrey the Portreve, and all the burgesses within London, both French and English: And I declare, that I grant you to be all *law worthy*, as you were in the days of King Edward the Confessor: And I grant, that every child shall be his father's heir after his father's days; and I will not suffer any person to do you wrong. God keep you."

The second charter, granted shortly after by William, is a curious instance of *inadvertency* in granting lands almost without specification, to *people* without any personal designation of capacity or name, or indeed without so much as the date of the year or the reign. We can only attempt to account for this neglect, by supposing it to refer to *some other agreement in writing*.

"William the King greets William the Bishop, and Swega the Sheriff, and all my thanes in East Saxony; whom I hereby acquaint, that, *pursuant to an agreement*, I have granted to the people my servants the hyde of land at Gyddesdune: And also, that I will not suffer either the French or English to hurt them in any thing."

The corporation of the city of London consists of the right honourable the lord mayor, the aldermen, and common council. Their rights and privileges are of most ancient date. We have quoted the two first charters, and refer to the note* for a statement of others.

About the year 1284, according to Maitland, the city was divided into twenty-four wards, each having an alderman; and each ward chose a certain number of "the inhabitants to be of "the council of the aldermen, which council were to be convened "by the aldermen, and their advice to be followed in all affairs "of public concern relating to the city of London." The number of the common council was then only forty-four. At present there are twenty-six aldermen, and two hundred and thirty-six common-council-men: the place of their assembling on public business, is called the Council-Chamber. No business can be transacted unless forty members (including aldermen) are present; and the opinion of the majority, in all cases, is decisive.† Until lately their consultations were private, but strangers are now admitted below the bar, which, upon interesting occasions, is much crowded. The chamber is 56 feet in length and 29 feet in width. At the upper end the lord mayor presides in the

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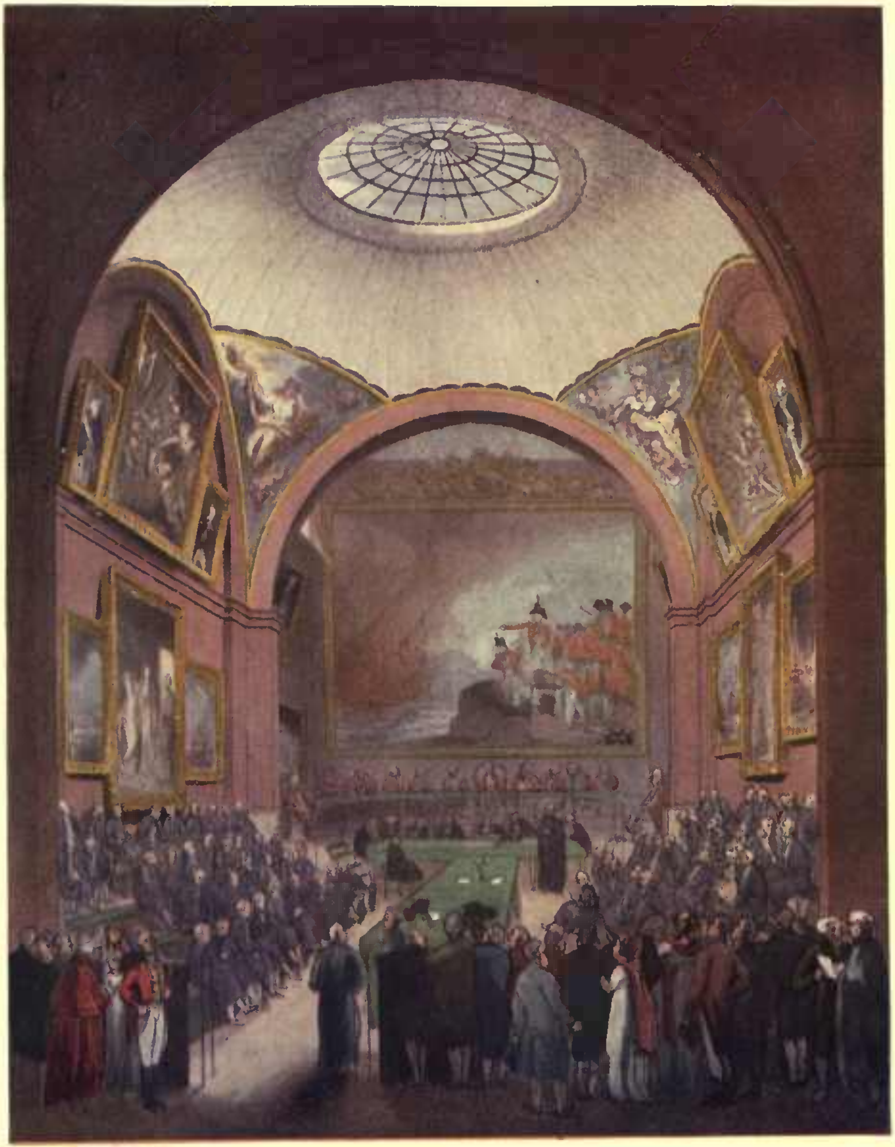
* CHARTERS.—1st Henry I.; without date, Henry II.; 5th and 8th Richard I.; 1st, ditto, ditto, and 16th John; 11th (five charters), 37th, 50th, 52d, and anno 1270, Henry III.; 26th Edward I.; 4th and 15th Edward II.; 1st, ditto, 11th, 15th, and 50th (two charters) Edward III.; 1st and 7th Richard II.; 1st Henry IV.; 2d, 3d, and 18th Edward IV.; anno 1505, Henry VII.; 10th Henry VIII.; anno 1550, Edward VI.; 2d, 4th, and 11th James I.; 13th Charles I.; anno 1663, Charles II.

† The principal speakers upon these occasions are usually, of the aldermen, Messrs. Combe, Price, Shaw, Birch, Wood, and Atkins; of the common council, Messrs. Quin, Waithman, Dixon, Goodbehere, Jacks, Bell, Slade, Box, and Kemble.



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt et sculpt.

COMMON COUNCIL CHAMBER, GUILDHALL.

center of an elevated bench: the recorder sits on his right hand; the aldermen are ranged according to seniority: seats are also allotted to the sheriffs on the bench. The different officers of the court are seated at a table immediately under the lord mayor, on which are placed the mace and sword of state, &c.

The common-council-men are seated promiscuously on rows of benches elevated a little above each other, along the room, the whole forming a *coup d'œil* truly respectable. The Council-Chamber is lighted principally from a dome in the ceiling, which is divided into different compartments, of handsome appearance, but ill-adapted for discussion, as the voice is broken and lost before it can reach half the audience, which was not the case previous to its alteration, which seems to have originated in a desire to appropriate the room for the reception of paintings; but in this respect also it is defective, as the light on some of the pictures is far from being favourable.

The pictures were presented by Mr. Alderman Boydell. The reasons which influenced him to this act of generosity and public spirit, are stated by himself thus:

"First, to shew my respect for the corporation and my fellow-citizens:

"Secondly, to give pleasure to the public and foreigners in general:

"Thirdly, to be of service to the artists, by shewing their works to the greatest advantage; and

"Fourthly, for the *mere* purpose of pleasing myself."

The four angels under the cupola are painted *in fresco*, by *J. F. Rigaud*, Esq. R.A. representing, by allegorical emblems,

I. PROVIDENCE. III. WISDOM.
II. INNOCENCE. IV. HAPPINESS.

We are willing to admit, that painting *in fresco* is better calculated than painting in oil for large public buildings, such as churches, public halls, &c.; because the objects represented are seen more distinctly at a greater distance, whatever may be the situation of the windows, or even by candle-light. But from whatever cause the circumstance arises, nobody can view these pictures without feeling infinite regret at their present state, which we are rather inclined to impute to some defect in the composition of the plaister, than any want of ability in the excellent painter by whom they were executed; and we are the more inclined to this opinion, as we understand some other performances of the same artist, executed prior to these, remain in a perfect state; incontestible proofs, that the humidity of the atmosphere in this country does not necessarily destroy works *in fresco* within a given period.

No. V.

CONJUGAL AFFECTION, *or* INDUSTRY *and* PRUDENCE.

Painted by *Robert Smirke*, Esq. R.A.

No. VI.

The MISERIES *of* CIVIL WARS.

A field of battle near Towton, in Yorkshire, between the houses of York and Lancaster, on the 29th March, 1461.

Painted by *Josiah Boydell*, Esq.

No. VII.

The Ceremony of administering the Oath to Alderman NEWNHAM, *Lord Mayor of London, on November* 8, 1782, *upon the Hustings at Guildhall;* wherein are represented the portraits of the lord mayor, the whole court of aldermen, many of the common council, the principal officers of the city, and several ladies and gentlemen, spectators.

Painted by Mr. *William Miller.*

No. VIII.

LORD MAYOR'S DAY *on the* WATER, *November 9th.*

Companion to No. VII. painted by *Richard Paton*, Esq.

No. IX.

Sir WILLIAM WALWORTH, *Lord Mayor of London, killing* WAT TYLER *in Smithfield;* for which glorious action King Richard II. conferred on him the honour of knighthood,* *and added the dagger to the city arms.*

Painted by *James Northcote*, Esq. R.A.

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* We shall place before our readers an extract from *Stow*, SURVEY, p. 221, upon this observation.

"It hath also been and is now grown to a common opinion, that, in regard of this service done by the said William Walworth against the rebell, King Richard added to the arms of this citie (which was argent, a plain crosse, gulas,) a sword or dagger (so they terme it), whereof I have read no such recorde; but, to the contrarie, I finde that, in the fourth yeare of Richard the Second, in a full assembly made in the upper chamber of Guildhall, summoned by this William Walworth, the maior, as well of aldermen as of the common counsell in every warde, for certaine affaires concerning the king, it was there by common consent agreed and ordained, that the olde seale of the office of maioraltie of the citie being very smal, old, unapt, and uncomelye for the honor of the citie, should be broken, and one other new should be had, which the said maior commanded to be made artificially and honourable for the exercise of the said office thereafter in place of the other, &c. This new seale seemeth to bee made before William Walworth was knighted, for he is not there intitled *Sir*, as afterwards he was;

No. X.

The MURDER *of* DAVID RIZIO *in the Presence of* MARY, *Queen of Scots, by her Husband, Lord* DARNLEY, *and Lord* RUTHVEN, *in the queen's bedchamber*, on the 9th March, 1566.

Painted by *John Opie*, Esq. R.A.

No. XI.

Portrait of Lord HEATHFIELD.

Painted by Sir *Joshua Reynolds*, president of the Royal Academy.

GIBRALTAR.

FOUR PICTURES.

No. XII.

The brave and gallant Defence of GIBRALTAR *against the united Forces of Spain and France*, on the afternoon of September 13, 1782, representing *the Gun-Boats setting fire to the Town, and the Garrison defending the Place.*

No. XIII.

The brave and gallant Defence of GIBRALTAR on the night between the 13th and 14th September, 1782, *with the Spanish Gun-boats in a blaze.*

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and certaine it is, that the same new seale then made, is now in use, and none other, in that office of the maioraltie; which may suffice to aunswere the former fable, without shewing of any evidence sealed with the olde seale, which was the crosse and sword of Saint Paule, and not the dagger of William Walworth."

No. XIV.

The brave and gallant Defence of GIBRALTAR on the 14th September, 1782, *where the English are employed in taking up the Spanish and French Sailors in great distress.*

No. XV.

The Relief of GIBRALTAR on the 11th October, 1782, *by the British Fleet under the Command of Admiral Lord* HOWE, *with the Spanish and French Fleets in the distance.*

No. XVI.

The Portrait of Lord RODNEY, *after Monnyer.*

No. XVII.

The Representation of his Majesty's Fleet under the Command of Lord RODNEY, *Admiral of the White, breaking the Line of the French Fleet* on the 12th April, 1782.

No. XVIII.

The glorious, brilliant, and decisive Victory gained under the Command of Lord RODNEY, *over the French Fleet*, on the 12th April, 1782.

N.B. These two engagements painted by Mr. *Dodd*, after small pictures by Mr. *Paton*.

No. XIX.

MINERVA.

Painted by *Richard Westall*, Esq. R.A.

No. XX.

APOLLO.

Painted by *Gavin Hamilton*, Esq.

No. XXI.

The BATTLE *of* AGINCOURT, *fought by King* HENRY V. on Thursday the 25th October, 1415.

Painted by *Josiah Boydell*, Esq.

No. XXII.

A Sky painted on the ceiling, with Angels holding up two chandeliers, at the upper end of the room.

No. XXIII.

The same as the preceding, at the bottom of the room.

Painted in distemper by *J. F. Rigaud*, Esq. R.A.

There is likewise a good portrait of Alderman BOYDELL, which cost the corporation two hundred guineas.

The following inscription is engraved on a large silver plate, inserted in the wall at the lower end of the room:

"At a Court of Common Council, February 27, 1800, on the motion of Mr. Deputy Goodbehere, *it was resolved*,

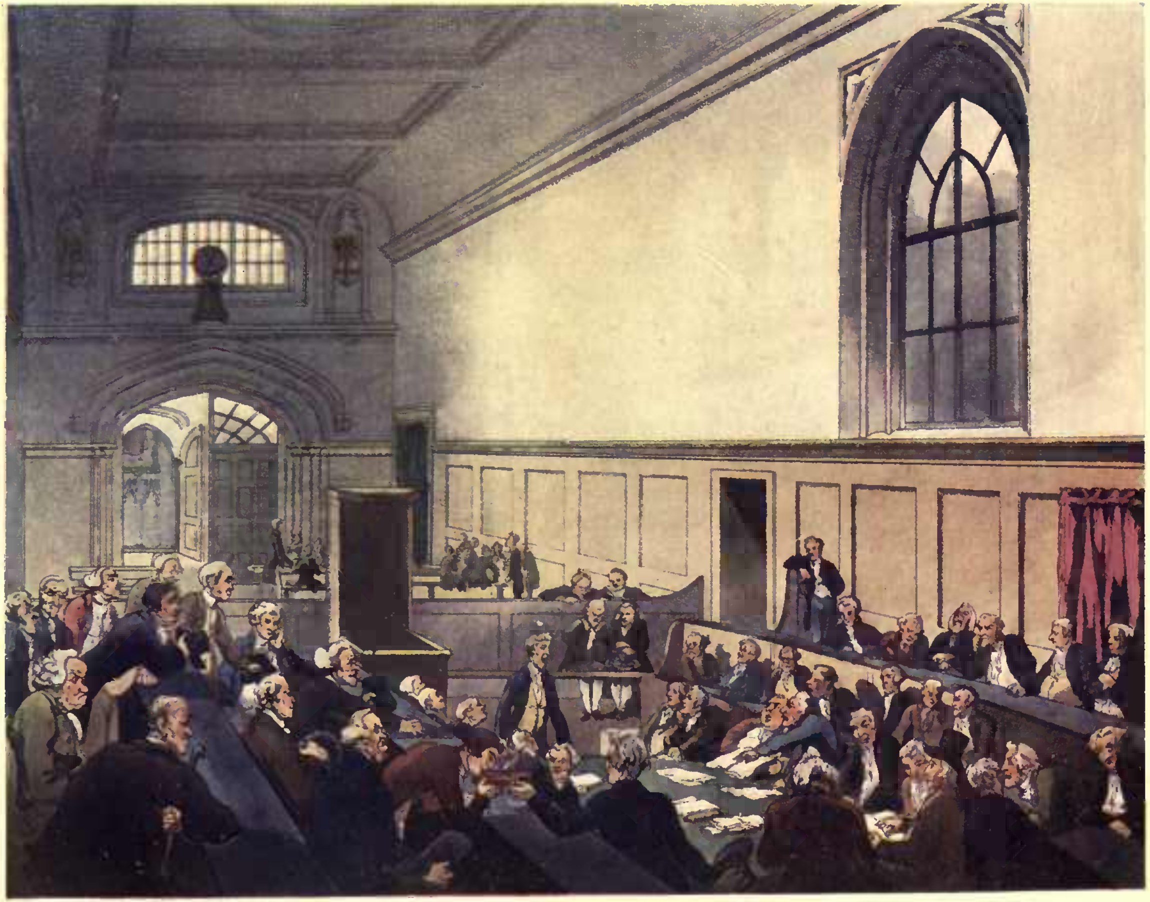
"That the members of this corporation, grateful for the delight afforded to them, as often as they assemble in this court, by the splendid collection of paintings presented by Mr. Alderman *Boydell*, entertaining an affectionate sense of the honour done them by that celebrated patron of arts, and proud of the relation in which they stand to him as fellow-citizens, do, in testimony of these feelings, request him to sit for his portrait to an artist of his own choice: conscious, however, that hereby they are only requesting him to confer a new gratification on themselves and their successors; and unwilling that, amid such and so many remembrances of sublime characters and illustrious actions, his portrait should be wanting, who, discerning and munificent in the encouragement of merit in others, combined in his own character private integrity with public spirit, and solid honesty with a highly cultivated taste."

V. Woodthorpe, sc.

We cannot conclude this account of the pictures without some notice of the worthy alderman by whom they were presented, because we think so noble an instance of disinterested liberality deserves to be perpetuated. His active life affords to the rising generation a lesson of what may be effected by integrity, perseverance, and abilities; and we have great pleasure in pointing out the venerable dead for the instruction and imitation of the living.

Alderman Boydell was born upon the 19th January, in the year 1719, at Dorrington in Shropshire. Of the place of his nativity his grandfather had been the vicar, and his father resided there, professing the business of a land-surveyor, to which he proposed bringing up his son; but his intentions fortunately received a different direction, from one of those trifling circumstances which frequently determine matters of more importance. We are told, that an accidental sight of the delineation of a building which he had been accustomed to contemplate with pleasure, excited an astonishment in his young mind easier to be conceived than described, and made such an impression, as ultimately determined him to become an engraver. In pursuance of this resolution, he walked up to the metropolis, and at twenty-one years of age bound himself apprentice for seven years to Mr. Tomas, the engraver of that very picture which had so strongly affected him. During his apprenticeship he attended the academy in St. Martin's-lane, to perfect himself in drawing; his leisure hours were devoted to perspective and learning French. At the end of six years he purchased the remaining year of the term from his master, and shortly after married. This was in the memorable year of 1745; when he published six small landscapes, designed and engraved by himself: he afterwards published many views in the neighbourhood of London, at the low price of one shilling. He engraved several prints from Brocking, Bercham, and Salvator Rosa. His perseverance and industry having enabled him to complete a great number of prints, he collected the whole in one port-folio, and published it at five guineas. He very modestly observes, that it was by the profit arising from this work he was enabled to encourage young artists, and flatters himself he thereby tended to improve the arts in this country. Having been eminently successful in the improvement of the art of engraving, he directed his attention to the establishment of a *School of Painting*. For this purpose he projected a plan, which, considered as the undertaking of one man, is great and extensive even in this age of enlarged speculation.

The Shakespeare Gallery introduced a new æra in the history of the art in this kingdom, and abundantly proves, that encouragement alone was wanting to render the English artists equal, and in some respects superior, to those of any other country. In a



Pugin & Rowlandson, delt. et sculpt

GUILDHALL

Examination of a Bankrupt before his Creditors *COURT of KINGS BENCH.*

letter to Mr. Alderman Anderson, published in March 1804, Mr. A. Boydell states, with great perspicuity and with characteristic simplicity, the reasons which induced him to solicit parliamentary sanction for the disposal of this gallery; and to that letter the limits of our publication oblige us to refer. In the course of a long life, dedicated to his favourite pursuit (the cultivation of the arts), he acquired the confidence of all ranks, and passed through the several offices of sheriff, alderman, lord mayor, and magistrate, with the universal approbation of his fellow-citizens.

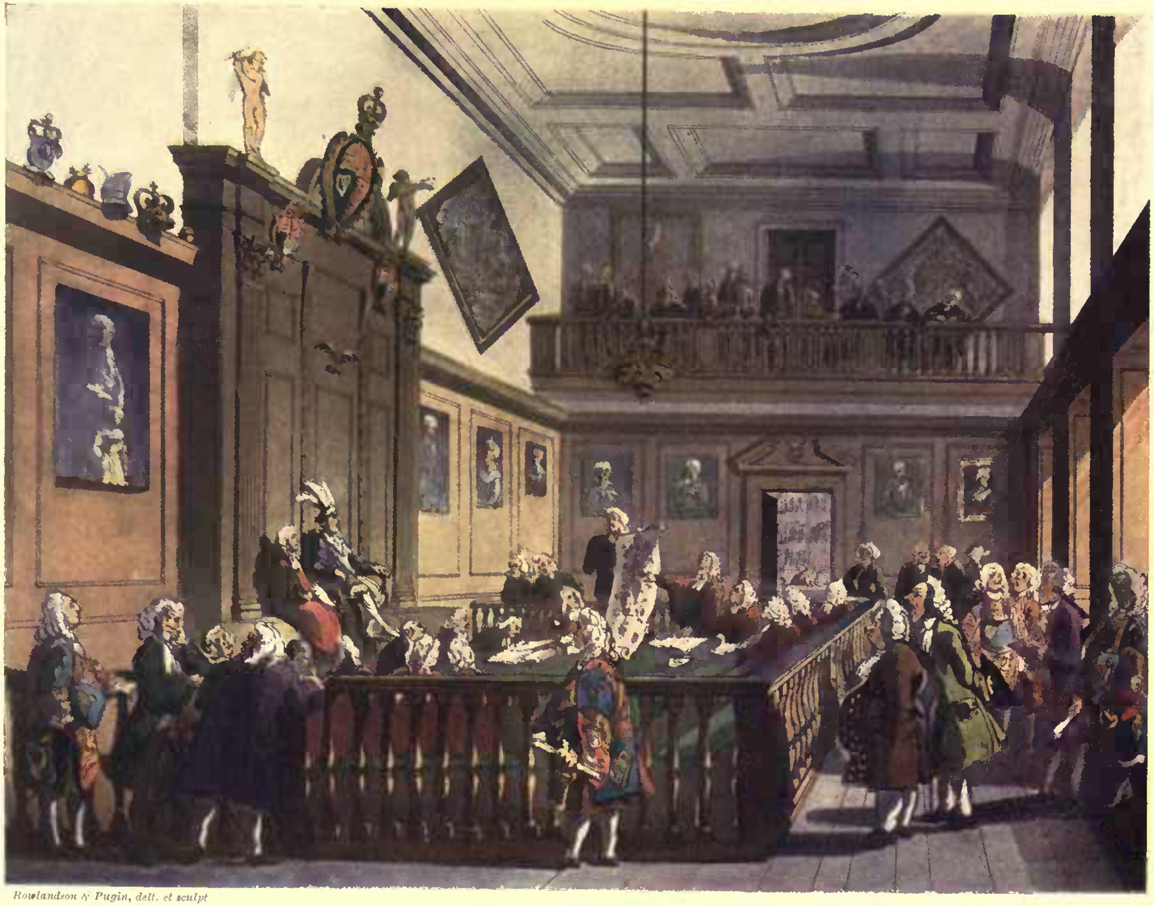
A too eager attention to his official duties occasioned his death; a few days previous to which, he went to attend at the Sessions-House in the Old Bailey, and being always early, arrived there before the fires were lighted; to which circumstance is attributed the cold and inflammation of his lungs, by which the life of this excellent and useful man was terminated, on the 11th of December, 1804, in the eightieth year of his age. He was interred on the 19th of December, in a most respectable manner, his remains being attended by the lord mayor, several of the aldermen, and many of his numerous relatives and friends.

GUILDHALL, COURT OF KING'S BENCH, AT A MEETING OF CREDITORS.

No person can have attended the meetings under a commission of bankruptcy, without feeling the necessity of a more convenient place for holding them. The number of failures, which naturally increase with the trade and commerce of the country, require a greater number of commissioners, and places more appropriate and distinct, than are at present allotted, in order that effectual justice may be done to the unfortunate bankrupt on the one hand, and to the injured creditors on the other. There is a great deal of character in the several figures represented in the plate, and the grouping possesses no inconsiderable share of merit.

The word *bankrupt* is supposed to be derived either from *bancus*, a tradesman's counter, and *ruptus*, broken, or from the French words, *banque* and *route:* the first English statute concerning this offence is "*against such as do make bankrupt*," which is a literal translation of the French expression, *qui font banque route.*

The laws of England, cautious of encouraging prodigality and extravagance, allow the benefit of the bankrupt laws to none but actual traders: but as trade cannot be carried on without mutual credit, the contracting of debts to facilitate and carry on trade and commerce is almost necessary; and if, from accidental calamities, or from those losses which no reasonable degree of prudence or foresight can prevent, a trader is unable to pay his debts, it is a misfortune, and not a fault. The law affords a compassionate remedy to his misfortune, which it denies to his faults; since, at the same time that it provides for the security of commerce by rendering a trader liable to be made a bankrupt for the benefit of his creditors as well as himself, it discourages extravagance by extending the benefit to such traders only as are industrious and unfortunate. The first statute relating to bankruptcy was made against the Lombards, who, after they had contracted obligations to their creditors, suddenly absconded out of the realm. It was therefore enacted, "that if any merchant "of the company acknowledge himself bound in that manner, that "then the company shall answer the debt; so that another mer-



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt. et sculpt

HERALDS COLLEGE.

THE HALL.

"chant, who is not of the company, shall not be thereby aggrieved "or impeached."

The first statute concerning any English bankrupts was the 34th Henry VIII. which has been altered by 13th Elizabeth, 1st and 21st James I. 5th George II. and the subsequent statutes of George III.

HERALDS' OFFICE

HERALDS' OFFICE, or the College of Arms, is situated upon St. Benet's Hill, near Doctors' Commons, at the south-west end of St. Paul's cathedral. This office was destroyed by the dreadful conflagration in 1666, and rebuilt about three years after. It is a square, inclosed by regular brick buildings, which are extremely neat, without expensive decorations. The floors are raised above the level of the ground, and there is an ascent to them by flights of plain steps. The principal front is in the lower story ornamented with rustic, upon which are placed four Ionic pilasters, that support an angular pediment. The sides, which are conformable to this, have arched pediments, that are also supported by Ionic pilasters. On the inside are, a large room for keeping the Court of Honour, a library, with houses and apartments for the kings, heralds, and pursuivants.

This corporation consists of thirteen members, viz. three kings at arms, six heralds at arms, and four pursuivants at arms; who are nominated by the earl marshal of England, as ministers subordinate to him in the execution of their offices, and hold their places by patent during their good behaviour. They are all the king's servants in ordinary; and therefore, in the vacancy of the office of earl marshal, have been sworn into their offices by the lord chamberlain. Their meetings are termed chapters, which they hold the first Thursday in every month, or oftener if necessary, wherein matters are determined by a majority of voices of the kings and heralds, each king having two voices.

The kings are Garter, Clarenceux, and Norroy. Garter was instituted by King Henry V. in the year 1417, for the service of the most noble order of the Garter; and for the dignity of that order, he was made sovereign, within the office of arms, over all the other officers subject to the crown of England. By the constitution of his office, he must be a native of England, and a gentleman bearing arms. To him belongs the correction of arms, and all ensigns of arms usurped or borne unjustly; and the power of granting arms to deserving persons, and supporters to the nobility and knights of the Bath. It is likewise his office to go next before the sword in solemn processions, none interposing except the marshal; to administer the oath to all the officers of arms; to have a habit like the register of the order; with baron's service in the court, and lodgings in Windsor castle. He bears his white rod, with a banner of the ensigns of the order thereon, before the sovereign. When any lord enters the Parliament Chamber, it is his post to assign him his place according to his dignity and degree; to carry the ensigns of the order before foreign princes; and to do, or procure to be done, what the sovereign shall enjoin relating to the order; for the execution of which he has a salary of 100*l.* a year, payable at the Exchequer, and 100*l.* more out of the revenue of the order, besides his fees.

The others are called *Provincial Kings*, and their provinces together comprise the whole kingdom of England; that of Clarenceux comprehending all to the south of the river Trent, and that of Norroy all to the north of that river: but though these provincials have existed time immemorial, they were not constituted to these offices by the titles of Clarenceux and Norroy before Edward III.

Clarenceux is thus named from the Duke of Clarence, the third son of King Edward III. It is his duty, according to his commission, to visit his province, to survey the arms of all persons, &c.; to marshal the funerals of all persons in his province, not under the direction of Garter; and in his province to grant arms, with the consent of the earl marshal. Before the institution of Garter, he was the principal officer of arms, and in the vacancy of Garter, he executes his office. Besides his fees, he has a salary from the Exchequer of 40*l.* a year.

The duty and office of Norroy, or North Roy, that is, North King, is the same on the north of the Trent, as that of Clarenceux on the south. The kings of arms were formerly elected by the sovereign with great solemnity upon some high festival; but since the ceremonies used at the creation of peers have been laid aside, the kings of arms have been created by the earl marshal, by virtue of the sovereign's warrant. Upon this occasion he takes his oath, wine is poured upon his head out of a gilt cup with a cover, his title is pronounced, and he is invested with a tabart of royal arms, richly embroidered upon velvet, a collar of

S. S. with two portcullisses of silver gilt, a gold chain, with a badge of his office; and the earl marshal places on his head the crown of a king of arms, which formerly resembled a ducal coronet, but since the Restoration it has been adorned with leaves resembling those of the oak, and circumscribed, according to ancient custom, with the words, *Miserere mei Deus secundum magnam misericordiam tuam.* Garter has also a mantle of crimson satin, as an officer of the order; with a white rod or sceptre, with the sovereign's arms on the top, which he bears in the presence of the sovereign; and he is sworn in a chapter of the Garter, the sovereign investing him with the ensigns of his office.

The kings of arms are distinguished from each other by their respective badges, which they may wear at all times, either in a gold chain or a ribbon, Garter's being blue, and the Provincials' purple.

The six heralds are, Windsor, Chester, Lancaster, York, Richmond, and Somerset, who take place according to seniority in office. They are created with the same ceremonies as the kings, taking the oath of an herald, and are invested with a tabart of the royal arms, embroidered upon satin, not so rich as the kings', but better than the pursuivants', and a silver collar of S. S. They are esquires by creation, and have a salary of 26*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* per annum, and fees according to their degree.

The kings and heralds are sworn upon a sword as well as the book, to shew that they are military as well as civil officers. The four pursuivants, who are Rougecroix, Bluemantle, Rougedragon, and Portcullis, are also created by the earl marshal, when they take their oath of a pursuivant, and are invested with a tabart of the royal arms upon damask. They have a salary of 20*l.* a year, with fees according to their degree. It is the duty of the heralds and pursuivants to attend in the public office, one of each class together, by a monthly rotation.

Besides these particular duties of the several classes, it is the general duty both of the kings, heralds, and pursuivants, to attend his majesty at the House of Peers, and, upon certain high festivals, to the Chapel Royal; to make proclamations, to marshal the proceedings at all public processions, to attend the installation of the knights of the Garter, &c.

All these officers have apartments in the college annexed to their respective offices; they have likewise a public hall, in which is a court for the earl marshal, where courts of chivalry were formerly held, and the officers of arms attended in their tabarts, his lordship being present. The plate is an accurate representation of this court, in the costume of that period. Although these officers are of great antiquity, little mention is made of their titles or names before the time of Edward III.: in his reign heraldry was in high esteem, as appears by the patents of the kings of arms, which refer to that period, from which time we find the officers of arms are employed abroad and at home both as military and civil officers.

In the 5th year of Henry V. arms were regulated, and at a chapter of the kings and heralds held at the siege of Rouen, in Normandy, on the 5th January, 1420, they formed themselves into a regular society, with a common seal, receiving Garter as their chief.

The first charter of incorporation was granted by King Richard III. who assigned them a proper office and residence: this charter was confirmed by Edward VI. and Queen Mary;

the latter of whom not only incorporated them again, but also granted them the messuage or house called Derby-place, which formerly belonged to the Earl of Derby, and was destroyed by the fire of London.

The arms of the college and corporation are, *argent* St. George's cross between four doves *azure*, one wing open to fly, the other close, with this motto—DILIGENT AND SECRET. Crest, a dove rising on a ducal coronet, supporters on either side a lion, guardant, argent, gorged with a ducal coronet. Their arms, crest, and supporters are upon the common seal, thus circumscribed: "*Sigillum commune Corporationis Officii Armorum.*

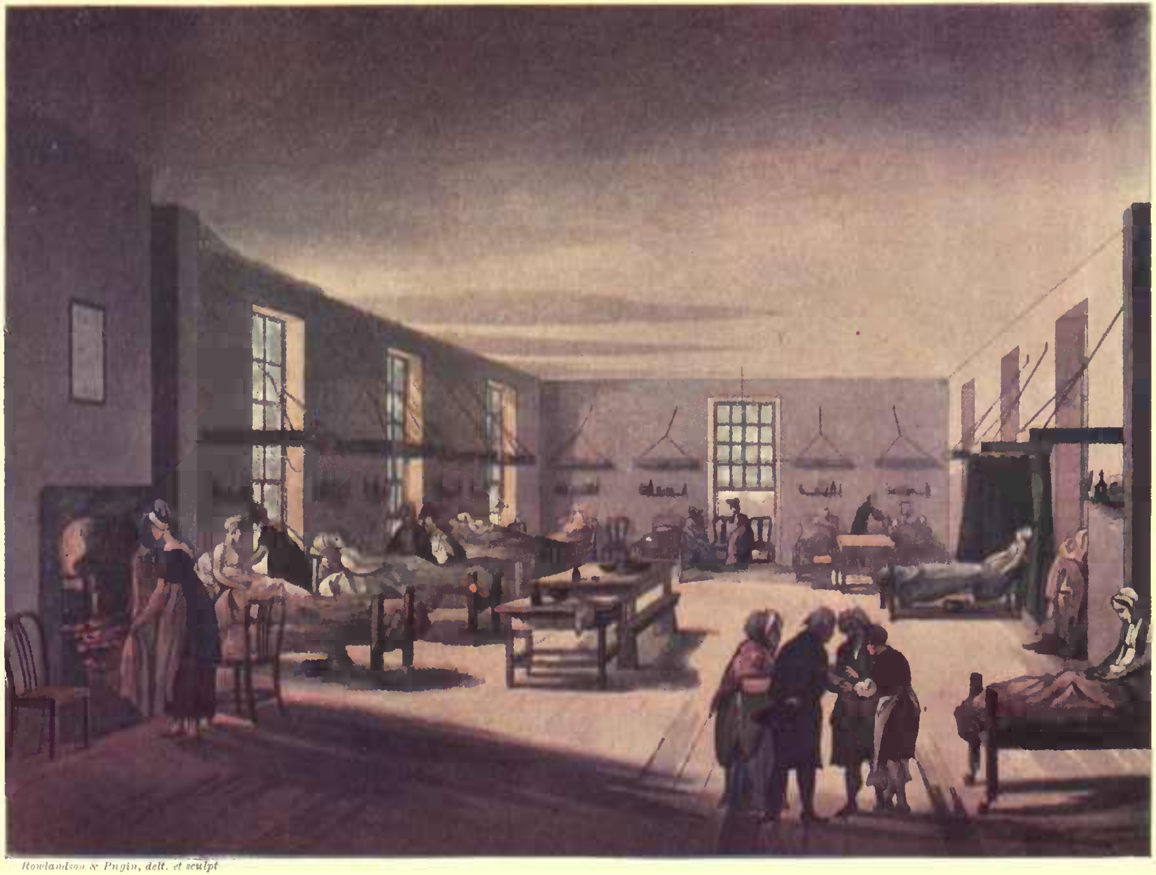
Their public library contains a large and valuable collection of original records of the pedigrees and arms of families, funeral certificates of the nobility and gentry, public ceremonials, and other branches of heraldry and antiquities; and there have been few works published, relating to the history and antiquities of this kingdom, in which the authors have not received some assistance from this library, where attendance is daily given by two officers.

The jurisdiction of the *Court Military*, or *Court of Chivalry*, is declared by statute 3d Richard II. c. 2. to be this: "That it "hath cognizance of contracts touching deeds of arms and of "war out of the realm, and also of things which touch war "within the realm, which cannot be determined or discussed by "the common law; together with *other usages and customs to the* "*same matters appertaining.*" So that (according to Sir W. Blackstone) wherever the common law can give redress, this court hath no jurisdiction: which has thrown it entirely out of use as to the matter of contracts, all such being usually cognizable in the courts of Westminster-Hall, if not directly, at least by fiction of law: as, if a contract be made at Gibraltar, the plaintiff may suppose it made at Northampton; for the locality, or place of making it, is of no consequence with regard to the validity of the contract.

The words, "*other usages and customs*," support the claim of this court, 1. To give relief to such of the nobility and gentry as think themselves aggrieved in matters of honour; and, 2. To keep up the distinction of degrees and quality. Whence it follows, that the civil jurisdiction of this Court of Chivalry is principally in two points: the redressing injuries of honour, and correcting encroachments in matters of coat-armour, precedency, and other distinctions of families.

As a Court of Honour, it is to give satisfaction to all such as are aggrieved in that point; a point of a nature so nice and delicate, that its wrongs and injuries escape the notice of the common law, and yet are fit to be redressed somewhere: such, for instance, as calling a man coward, or giving him the lie; for which, as they are productive of no immediate damage to his person or property, no action will lie in the courts at Westminster, and yet they are such injuries as will prompt every man of spirit to demand some honourable amends; which, by the ancient laws of the land, was appointed to be given in the Court of Chivalry. But modern resolutions have determined, that how much soever such a jurisdiction may be expedient, yet no action for words will at present lie therein; and it hath always been most clearly holden, that as this court cannot meddle with any thing determinable by the common law, it therefore can give no pecuniary satisfaction of damages, insomuch as the quantity and determination thereof is ever of common law cognizance: and therefore this Court of Chivalry can at most order reparation in point of honour; as, to compel the defendant *mendacium sibi ipsi imponere,* or to take the lie that he has given upon himself, or to make such other submission as the laws of honour may require. Neither can this court, as to the point of reparation in honour, hold plea of any such word, or thing, wherein the party is relievable by the courts of common law: as, if a man gives another a blow, or calls him thief or murderer; for in both these cases the common law has pointed out his proper remedy by action. As to the other points of its civil jurisdiction, the redressing encroachments and usurpations in matters of heraldry and coat-armour, it is the business of this court, according to Sir Matthew Hale, to adjust the rights and armorial ensigns, bearings, crests, supporters, pennons, &c.; and also rights of place or precedence, where the king's patent or act of parliament (which cannot be overruled by this court), has not already determined it.

The proceedings of this court are by petition, in a summary way; and the trial, not by a jury of twelve men, but by witnesses, or by combat: but as it cannot imprison, not being a court of record, and as, by the resolution of the superior courts, it is now confined to so narrow and restrained a jurisdiction, it has fallen into contempt and disuse. The marshalling of coat-armour, which was formerly the pride and study of all the best families in the kingdom, is now greatly disregarded; and has fallen into the hands of certain officers and attendants upon this court, called heralds, who consider it only as a matter of lucre, and not of justice: whereby such falsity and confusion have crept into their records (which ought to be the standing evidence of families' descents and coat-armour), that, though formerly some credit has been paid to their testimony, now even their common seal will not be received as evidence in any court of justice in the



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HOSPITAL, MIDDLESEX.

kingdom. But their original visitation books, compiled when progresses were solemnly and regularly made into every part of the kingdom, to enquire into the state of families, and to register such marriages and descents as were verified to them upon oath, are allowed to be good evidence of pedigrees. And it is much to be wished, that this practice of visitation at certain periods were revived; for the failure of inquisitions *post mortem*, by the abolition of military tenures, combined with the negligence of the heralds in omitting their usual progresses, has rendered the proof of a modern descent for the recovery of an estate, or succession to a title of honour, more difficult than that of an ancient one. This will be indeed remedied for the future with respect to claims of peerage, by a standing order of the House of Lords, directing the heralds to take exact account, and preserve regular entries, of all peers and peeresses of England, and their respective descendants; and that an exact pedigree of each peer and his family shall, on the day of his first admission, be delivered to the house by Garter, the principal king at arms. But the general inconvenience, affecting more private successions, still continues without a remedy.

MIDDLESEX HOSPITAL

MIDDLESEX HOSPITAL, for the reception of the sick and the lame, and for lying-in married women, is situated in Mary-bone-fields, near Oxford-road, now called Charles-street. This is a neat, plain, and not inelegant brick building: it has the decent appearance and all the accommodations one would wish in a house devoted to charity, without that ostentatious magnificence which too often in a great measure defeats the humane and noble end of such institutions, where those sums are squandered away in useless decorations, that ought to be employed in administering health to the sick, and giving feet to the lame. Nature and religion teach us to patronize every instance of distress, but most powerfully that deepest of all distresses, sickness in poverty. Sickness itself will excite compassion, though alleviated by every comfort and advantage that wealth can procure: how much stronger a sympathy must then arise at the idea of sickness aggravated by poverty; or considered in another view, of poverty disabled by sickness! Most men are inclined, but very few, in comparison, have individually the power, to relieve: public contributions, therefore, seem the most likely to effect what the private bounty of individuals cannot. These considerations gave rise, a few years since, to infirmaries, and in particular to this, which has the merit and the honour of being the first hospital in this kingdom for lying-in women, and of setting an example which has been so happily followed.

The charitable designs of this Hospital were carried on for several years in two convenient houses adjoining to each other in Windmill-street, Tottenham-court-road, where the first institution, in August 1745, was intended only for the relief of the indigent sick and lame; but in July 1747, the governors, willing to render it more worthy of the notice of the public, extended their plan to the relief of the pregnant wives of the industrious poor: when the great increase of patients, occasioned by the reputation of this twofold charity, soon obliged the governors to think of enlarging their edifice, as well as their plan; and the kind benevolence of the public, by donations, legacies, &c. enabled them, in 1755, to erect a much larger and more convenient building in Mary-bone-fields, in which the apartments for the reception of the lying-in women were in a separate part of the building, remote from the sick and lame; and that ladies might visit the lying-in patients without being incommoded by the sick and lame, different staircases led to each, the lying-in wards having no communication with the sick and lame. But the age of delicacy and refinement has succeeded to the age of charity and active benevolence. The fair contributors to the funds of such charities as are particularly devoted to the relief of lying-in women, may dismiss all apprehension of being called upon to visit the bed of sickness and of sorrow: the tax upon their purse is not extended to their feelings, already perhaps rendered too delicate by the agonizing distresses of some ideal heroine, or the complicated horrors of some mouldering abbey. But that part of the institution which relates to the admission of pregnant women, was altered about fifteen years ago, in consequence of an offer made by an unknown person, through the medium of a respectable surgeon, to advance 3000*l.* and to settle 300*l.* per annum on the Hospital, provided the governors would appropriate a ward for the reception and cure of cancerous diseases. Such an offer was not to be rejected, and the obstacle to its adoption was the unwillingness of the governors to narrow the extent of the charity, to the exclusion of some part of those who were already within its scope. It being however suggested, that delivering married women at home would in most cases be a more effectual and beneficial relief, than obliging them to pass the period of their confinement in an hospital, excluded from their families, it was determined to appropriate the lying-in ward to the desired purpose, and to provide those who might want it with proper assistance, medicine, and nurses, at their own habitations; by which means the managers of this charity were enabled to accept the benevolent offer, and since that period the upper part of the Hospital has been devoted solely to the cure of that disease.

The qualification of a governor of this charity is an annual subscription of three guineas; which also entitles the subscriber to recommend, and have in the house at one time, either one sick or lame patient, or one lying-in woman, and to recommend out-patients. A subscription of five guineas per annum entitles the subscriber to recommend one sick or lame in-patient, out-patients, and one lying-in woman. A subscription of thirty guineas at one payment, constitutes the subscriber a governor for life, with the last-mentioned privileges. Contributions of lesser sums than three guineas per annum are thankfully received, and entitle the contributors to recommend one sick or lame in-patient and one out-patient at the same time.

A committee of the governors (appointed quarterly) meet at the Hospital every Tuesday, at ten o'clock, to receive and discharge patients, and to transact the other necessary business of the house; where every governor, though not of the committee, has a right to be present, and his attendance is received as a favour. A report of their proceedings is made to the general court held every quarter, when the resolutions of this committee are approved or rejected. The patients are attended without fee or reward by three eminent physicians, a man-midwife, three surgeons, and a clergyman. The physicians visit the patients every Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday, and on intermediate days when particular cases require it. The surgeons attend every day.

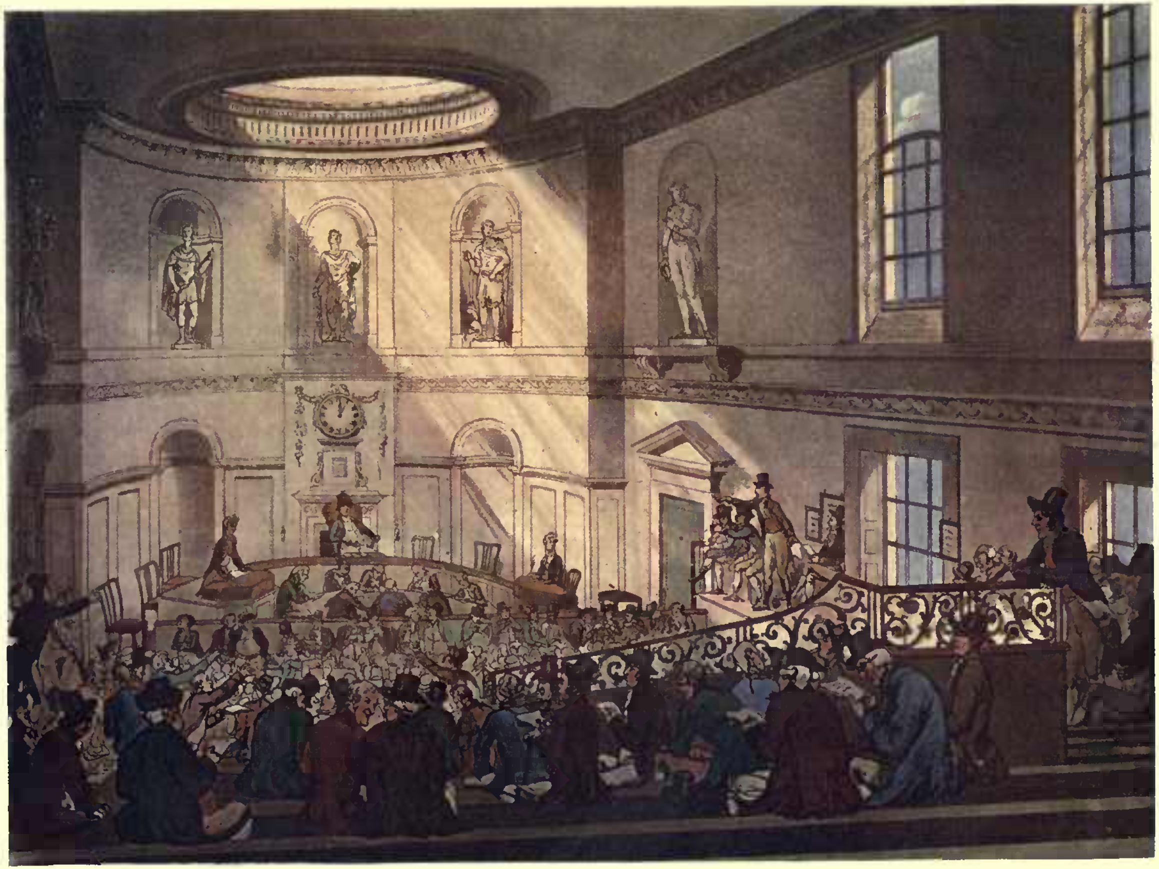
Patients are admitted on a letter of recommendation from a governor or contributor, who may recommend in-patients, and have out-patients on the books, according to the regulation above-mentioned; and when in-patients are recommended, and there is not room in the house to receive them, they are put on the list, to be admitted on the first vacancy, and in the mean time prescribed for as out-patients.

No security is required for burials. All accidents are admitted without recommendation. Tuesday being the day appointed for the admission of patients, they are expected to be at the Hospital, with their recommendation, at ten o'clock.

The physicians and surgeons meet every Saturday at twelve o'clock at the Hospital, where they give advice gratis to all such diseased poor who shall come, though unrecommended, and require it.

Perhaps no country in the world can boast of so many public institutions for the relief of the poor as Great Britain, and those chiefly supported by voluntary contributions. Whatever vices may belong to the present day, or whatever deficiencies the religious observer, or the moralist, may discover, certainly the want of charity is not among the number. It is not to the metropolis alone these noble institutions are confined: there is not a county without its public infirmary and dispensary, for supplying the afflicted poor with assistance and medicine; and almost every town is supplied with some charitable institution, for the same benevolent purposes. As we do not promise ourselves another opportunity in the course of the work, we shall in this place subjoin a list of the principal hospitals.

1. Middlesex Hospital, Charles-street, for sick and lame, and pregnant women.
2. St. Thomas's Hospital, Southwark, for the reception of sick and lame, especially sailors.
3. Gray's Hospital, Southwark, for sick and impotent persons, and lunatics.
4. London Hospital, Whitechapel-road, for all persons meeting with accidents.
5. St. George's Hospital, Hyde Park-corner, for the reception of sick and lame.
6. Westminster General Infirmary, James-street, Westminster.
7. St. Bartholomew's Hospital, in West Smithfield.
8. Lock Hospital, Hyde Park-turnpike.
9. Hospital Misericordia, Goodman's-fields, for the same purpose.
10. Small-Pox Hospital, St. Pancras, now employed for vaccination.
11. London Lying-in Hospital, Aldersgate-street, for poor married women.
12. City of London Lying-in Hospital, Old-street, City-road.
13. British Lying-in Hospital, Brownlow-street, Long-Acre.
14. Westminster Lying-in Hospital, Surrey-road, Westminster-bridge, for poor pregnant women generally.
15. Queen's Lying-in Hospital, Bayswater-hall, Oxford-road, for the same objects.
16. Lying-in Hospital, Store-street, Tottenham-court-road.



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INDIA HOUSE.
THE SALE ROOM.

17. Lying-in Charity for delivering pregnant women at their own houses.
18. Society for delivering married women at their own habitations, by whom thirty-two midwives are employed.
19. New Lying-in Charity for the wives of the foot guards, Great Ryder-street.
20. Bethlem Hospital, for lunatics, Moorfields.
21. St. Luke's Hospital, for lunatics, Old-street-road.
22. Samaritan Society, for relieving persons discharged from Hospitals.
23. Society for visiting and relieving the sick at home.
24. Vaccine-Pock Institution, No. 5, Golden-square.
25. Royal Jennerian Society for the inoculation of the cow-pock, Salisbury-square.
26. Institution for the cure and prevention of contagious fevers in the metropolis.

EAST INDIA COMPANY

IT would exceed our limits to enter into the history of the ancient connections between Europe and the East Indies prior to the establishment of the Roman power; it may be sufficient to observe, that during the existence of this great empire, and indeed long after its overthrow in the West, all trade with these countries was carried on by way of the Nile and the

Red Sea. This trade was almost, if not entirely, annihilated by the Saracens; but was renewed by the Genoese and Venetians towards the middle of the twelfth century, when, according to Monsieur Huet, it was carried on by the way of Caffa, on the Black Sea, and Astracan, across the Caspian Sea, and so through Persia to and from India. This route was afterwards discontinued, till again renewed by the Mamalukes about the year 1300, at which time Indian wares were also brought up the Euphrates to Bagdat, and from thence by caravans to Syria. "It was about the same period that the Mahometan Moors first began to conquer India, with a great power from the North, conquering all the Gentiles as far as the kingdom of Canara," &c. "The Moors of Barbary," says the same author, "are but few in number in India, and though the conquerors of India now spoken of were, and their successors still are, called Moors, yet they were chiefly composed of Arabians, Turks, Persians, Tartars, &c. of the Mahometan religion. They were found by the Portuguese, at the close of the fifteenth century, to have been settled as far as the remote Molucca Isles, before these people arrived there in the year 1500. The Moors in these times are said to have managed all the commerce of India eastward to the Spice Islands, China, &c. as well as westward towards Europe. In the latter end of this century the Soldan of Cairo directed the Indian merchandise to be landed on the Arabian shore, and carried overland to Mecca, and from thence to Egypt, Libya, Africa, &c. It seems the Mamaluke Soldans of Egypt were in those days so exceedingly jealous with regard to this traffic, that they would not permit any Christian to go to India either in their ships or through their dominions. After the discovery of Africa as far south as the

Cape of Good Hope, the Portuguese seem to have contented themselves for a few years, till Emanuel, in the year 1497, sent out Vasco de Gama with three ships and a tender, who, in five months, got to the north-east of that famous promontory: at Mosambique he procured a pilot to Quiloa and Mombaza, where he found large ships from Arabia and India. The Moors were at that time possessed of sea-charts, quadrants, and even the compass. From thence he reached Calicut in India, which he found to be large and populous: here were above *one thousand five hundred sail of ships*, ill built and badly supplied for long voyages, *the compass not being known here:* from this place a great trade was carried on in spices and other Indian merchandise. From thence he returned to Melinda, and so home to Lisbon, having completed his voyage in about twenty-six months."

Thus a new and astonishing theatre for commerce was opened to the Portuguese, which they improved for a considerable time, till riches begot pride, effeminacy, and prodigality among the people; in consequence of which they were gradually stripped of their trade and possessions in India, and a door was ultimately opened for other nations, to profit by a discovery, the advantages of which they had been unable to defend or retain. About the year 1584, some members of the English Turkey Company carried their merchandise from Aleppo to Bagdat, thence down the Tigris to Ormus in the Persian gulph, and so on as far as Goa, and attempted to settle a trade to the East Indies overland; for that purpose they carried letters from Queen Elizabeth to the King of Cambaya and the Emperor of China. They found the Venetians had factories at all these places. They, however, soon after travelled to several other parts of India, also to Agra, the Great Mogul's capital. From Tripoli in Syria, they sailed to London, having made themselves acquainted with the nature of East India commerce, preparatory to their intended voyage *by sea* to India, for which preparations were now making. At length, in the year 1591, the first voyage from England to India was attempted with three ships; but so many of the men had been lost by sickness, that one of the ships was sent home from the Cape of Good Hope: of the other two, the principal one was never heard of again; and Captain Lancaster's, which arrived in India, met with but little success, it having been run away with by six of the sailors, whilst the remainder of the crew, with the captain, were on shore in an uninhabited island: at the end of three years Captain Lancaster was brought home, several of his men having perished from want. The avarice of the foreign merchants trading to the East Indies, determined Elizabeth to encourage a direct trade: accordingly, on the 31st December, 1600, she granted a charter to George Earl of Cumberland, and 215 knights, aldermen, and merchants, by the name of "The Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading to the East Indies." The original shares subscribed were only fifty pounds each. This is the very same East India Company, which, through many vicissitudes, existed under the same denomination till the year 1708, when it was absorbed in the United Company. Soon after the English took possession of St. Helena, at that time uninhabited, which they fortified, and held undisturbed till the year 1673. The great and only benefit our ships receive from this isle is, the fresh water and provisions they there meet with on their return from India, in providing of which above two hundred families are here employed and supported. In the year

1712, the exclusive trade of the Company was prolonged till Lady-day 1736: about six years prior to the determination of this charter, considerable efforts were made to throw the trade open, or at least to a greater extent than under the existing monopoly. In February 1730 (N. S.), a petition and proposals were presented to the House of Commons to that effect: as the arguments used upon this are nearly the same as what must be recurred to upon occasions of a similar nature, and embrace all that can be advanced upon this important subject, we shall state them concisely.

The proposal was to advance 3,200,000*l.* for redeeming the fund of the present Company, for which they were to receive only 2 per cent. after the last instalment was paid up.*

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* The benefits to the public by this proposal they stated to be,

1. That by receiving but two per cent. interest, an annuity of ninety-two thousand pounds would be added to the sinking fund, which, at twenty-five years purchase, was worth two millions five hundred thousand pounds to the public.

2. That, as the laying open the trade to Africa, is acknowledged to be attended with great national advantages; so the thus laying open the trade to the East Indies, or the reducing it into a kind of regulated company, will be attended with the following advantages, viz. It will necessarily occasion a larger exportation of our own products and manufactures to India.

3. It will employ a much greater number of ships and seamen.

4. It will greatly lower the prices of all East India commodities consumed at home.

5. It will enable us to supply foreign markets cheaper and in greater quantities with Indian merchandise, whereby some new branches of traffic may be gained, and others preserved, more especially in Africa and America, and also in some parts of Europe. Here the proposers should have been more explicit.

6. It will necessarily advance the customs and excise, and thereby lessen the national debt, &c.

7. They alledge, but give no particular reason for such their allegation, that great advantages may accrue by employing our shipping in freights from one part of India to another, more than the present Company has ever been able to do.

8. It will prevent persons acquainted with the trade to India, from being under the

In 1743, this Company proposed an enlargement for fourteen years of their exclusive trade and privileges, in consideration of which they agreed to advance one million for the public service for the year 1744, at 3 per cent. interest. This was confirmed by

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necessity (for want of employment here) of seeking it in foreign nations, and even will bring home those who are already engaged that way. (This had a reference to certain Englishmen engaged in the Ostend and Swedish East India Companies.) These were the plausible and principal arguments made use of to the legislature, or within doors, which yet were more abundantly amplified and improved without doors, in several printed pamphlets and newspapers, which carried them, as is usually the case, much beyond rational probability.

The out-door arguments or inducements for alluring of subscribers to this scheme, were,

1. Certain interest from the public of four per cent. for the first two years, and two per cent. certain afterwards.

2. The additional annual profit arising from the before-named licences.

3. The five per cent. on all goods imported would bring a considerable surplus over and above the expence of supporting the forts and factories; since as they alledged, the present Company's forts and settlements do, one with another, more than answer their own expence: and even although this proposed Company should be obliged to pay the present Company a sum of money for their forts and settlements, (could these proposers make any doubt of so just and equitable a point?) yet in a few years there would a further annual profit accrue, arising from the said duties: for,

4. Even supposing the trade under this proposed Company should not increase, as however they were confident it would, beyond the amount of three millions yearly at the public sales, yet five per cent. thereon would yield one hundred and fifty thousand pounds per annum, which makes eighty-six thousand pounds more than will complete the annuity or interest of four per cent.: wherefore,

5. It may be concluded, that the annual dividend will not at any time be less than five to six per cent. to the subscribers, since, as the exportations and importations shall increase, in like proportion will the dividends necessarily increase.

Yet notwithstanding all the before-mentioned and similar plausible reasonings without doors, and of all that their friends could urge within doors, the House of Commons rejected their petition; because,

FIRST, It was certainly, at least hazardous to turn the East India trade into a new channel.

an act of Parliament of the 17th George II. cap 17. The debt due to the Company at this period was therefore 3,200,000*l.* at 4 per cent. being 128,000*l.* per annum, and 1,000,000*l.* at 3 per cent. being 30,000*l.* per annum, and their charter to expire at Lady-day 1783, on payment of this sum.

SECONDLY, It was uncertain whether the proposed subscriptions would readily fill in due time.

THIRDLY, Or whether their flattering expectations would answer, either with respect to the subscribers, or to the nation.

FOURTHLY, Whether the king's customs might not be diminished, instead of being increased.

FIFTHLY, Whether, by the new method of a regulated trade, the nation's general commerce to India might not in some degree be hurt and diminished; for who can foresee all the advantages which other European nations trading to India, would be able to gain over us by this alteration, or the hurt our trade might receive from the Indian princes? &c.: to quit therefore a present certainty for a future (though plausible) uncertainty, was not judged safe nor prudent. This same opposition, however, drew from the present Company very considerable advantages to the public:

1. By occasioning the Company to give up one per cent. of the interest payable on their capital of three millions two hundred thousand pounds; and,

2. To pay, moreover, for the benefit of the public, two hundred thousand pounds for the service of the current year, over and above the said abatement of one per cent. of their interest, viz. from five to four per cent.; or from one hundred and sixty thousand pounds, to one hundred and twenty-eight thousand pounds per annum, whereby thirty-two thousand pounds per annum would be immediately added to the sinking fund; which the Company, nevertheless, were legally entitled to for six years longer.

Whilst the bill was depending in Parliament, abundance of anonymous letters and essays were published in pamphlets and newspapers, against exclusive Companies in general, and more especially against this Company's exclusive trade in particular: all the arguments which had been advanced for above one hundred years past, against monopolies in this and other mercantile Companies, were, on this occasion, brought again into the light and re-published: these and other similar arguments, some of which were at least inconclusive, if not fallacious, were freely urged both within and without doors, and were supported by many eminent merchants.

On the other hand, it is but justice to the present East India Company, to exhibit the principal points then so judiciously urged by way of reply in their own behalf, viz.

In 1767, a committee was appointed by Parliament to enquire into the state of the Company's affairs; an investigation of which, and other collateral subjects connected therewith, produced much animated debate, not to say violence. Among other important

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1. That at present it seems to be agreed on all sides, that the East India trade is a beneficial one to this nation, and consequently is necessary to be preserved: but the principal question is, which is the best method to preserve it to us, viz. whether by a Company vested with exclusive privileges and regulations, such as the legislature shall from time to time direct, or whether the trade shall be left quite open to every adventurer who shall pay for a licence from this Company?

2. It is but too probable, that the present determined opposition to the Company proceeds in a great measure from the great gains which the Company makes; for the enemies of this Company are forced to go back almost forty years to search out former mismanagements, having nothing to alledge against their present conduct.

3. That the Company at present employs a vast stock in trade, their sales amounting to about three millions yearly, and the customs accruing to the public are immensely great, and answer the appropriations made of them by Parliament better than most other duties, they bringing in net money, clear of all drawbacks and debentures, three hundred thousand pounds yearly: would it then be prudent in the legislature to let them, i.e. the said customs, fall, without a certainty of at least as much in the room of them?

4. That the forts and factories do at present cost the Company three hundred thousand pounds yearly, and doubtless the Government could not maintain them for so little; that these forts and other buildings are questionless the Company's property, who actually purchased them of the old Company, and are of very great value: who, then, shall set an equitable price on them? What certainty have the Government, when they are in their hands, that the proposed open trade will be always sufficient to maintain so vast an expence of customs and forts, as six hundred thousand pounds yearly? for as every man is by the proposed scheme left at liberty (and will no doubt make use of it) to trade or not to trade thither as it may suit his interest, it may happen that one year there may go fifty ships for India, and another year perhaps not five; and these being all separate traders, the Government can have no certainty nor security from them, nor indeed from any other but an incorporated body, who have a great deal to lose, and who are able to bear the ill fortune of some particular years trading without presently laying it aside.

5. That by the separate traders outbidding one another in India, for the sake of dispatch, the prices of goods there would be raised so high as at length not to be worth

matters brought into discussion, was the Company's right to its territorial possessions: but though this subject was frequently taken up, the House of Commons discovered no very great inclination to determine a question pregnant with so many important consequences; for the ministry (though disposed to assert the right), and a large body of proprietors of India stock (equally disposed to deny it,) agreed in one opinion as to the prudence of a reasonable composition between Government and the Company. About this time, a scheme of proposals for an accommodation was agreed to, by which Government granted some advantages to the Company; who, in return, agreed to pay 400,000*l.* per annum for two years, and to indemnify the revenue

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the buying; and, for the like reason, at home they would so undersell each other, till the goods would not be worth selling, which was the case for the small time that the two Companies (the old and the new ones) and the separate traders contended against each other, whereby they did all very much hurt the trade.

6. That an united Company will always be more diligent to watch the encroachments and attempts of other European nations in India, than separate traders will, or can be, whose views are naturally contracted within the narrow circle of their own private interest alone.

7. That although the Company have a claim to a perpetuity in this trade, by the act of the tenth of Queen Anne, cap. 28. yet some doubts arising as to the certainty of this right, and the Company being unwilling that their title to this trade (however strong) should prove the occasion of disputes hereafter, are therefore content to take up with a temporary certainty in lieu thereof; and, moreover, to give the public almost four hundred thousand pounds in money; and, further, consenting that their annuity of five per cent. (which is not redeemable till the year 1736) be now reduced to four per cent. whereby they lose an annuity of 32,000*l.* for six years to come, valued at 192,000*l.*

To conclude, the legislature passed the bill in the Company's favour, entitled An act (in the third of George the Second) for reducing the annuity or fund of the United East India Company, and for ascertaining their right of trade to the East Indies, and the continuance of their corporation for that purpose, upon the terms therein mentioned.

from any loss arising out of the advantages the Company acquired by the alteration of the inland duties on tea.

An act likewise passed for regulating the dividends of the East India Company; and another for rescinding the act of the Company by which they were increased, and restraining them from raising their dividends above 10 per cent. till the next meeting of Parliament. Against this bill* the Company petitioned ineffectually.

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* The principles upon which this bill was founded, were, to prevent the payment of an higher dividend than the circumstances of the Company could afford, without endangering their credit; to regulate the dividend in such a manner as to put an end to the fluctuation of that stock, which, if allowed to proceed, might not only introduce a pernicious spirit of gaming, but would also tend to distress the other stocks; and to prevent any encroachment that might be made by any dividend of the Company upon the revenue of its lately acquired territory, so that the claim of the public might suffer no loss till that affair was finally decided: these were the principal grounds upon which the authors and promoters of the bill rested their support of it. The leading arguments in opposition to it, were, that by the state of the Company's affairs laid before Parliament, it was evident they were in a condition to make a much greater increase of dividend without affecting their credit; and that if they were allowed to be in circumstances to pay Government 400,000*l.* per annum, there could be no doubt of their being well able to divide 80,000*l.* among themselves: that the short period to which the restriction of the dividend was confined would lead to encourage, instead of checking, the infamous practices of the Alley; and that the proposal made by the Company, of submitting to a restriction of the dividend of 12½ per cent. during the Company's agreement, would have obviated all the mischief, and secured every good end which might be proposed; but could not be attained by the bill in question, without being liable to the objection of violence and injustice. That if a supposition, that a right to the territorial acquisitions in the East Indies was not vested in the Company, should be admitted as one of the grounds of this bill, a precedent would be established very dangerous indeed to the property of the subject; and that if a legislative interposition was permitted to controul the dividend of a trading Company, to whom no blame was imputable, and who had lent their money to the public upon the express stipulation, that they might exercise their discretion with regard to the dividend, provided that the undivided effects were sufficient to answer their debts, such a measure might be attended with consequences very alarming indeed to public credit.

The obtaining money from the East India Company was now become so much a part of the system of Government, that, previous to the expiration of the agreement, proposals were made with a view to settle their affairs on a permanent foundation. After a long train of negociation, an agreement was at length concluded, and an act passed, in 1769, confirming it; by which the Company continued to pay 400,000*l.* per annum for six years, and were allowed, under certain restrictions, to increase their dividend to 12½ per cent. In 1772, his majesty thought it necessary to recommend the affairs of this Company to Parliament, in his speech from the throne. The precarious situation of affairs in India, the late distresses of the natives, the depopulation of the country, the oppression and arbitrary conduct of the Company's servants, the great decrease of the net revenues of Bengal, from various mismanagements, as well as enormous and unnecessary expences, and the immense consequence to this nation of preserving and well governing our possessions in India, induced Parliament to adopt a regulating law, and to appoint thirty-one members to enquire into the nature and state of the East India Company and their affairs. This business was again recommended from the throne in November, and in the following year a committee of secrecy, consisting of thirteen members, was appointed for this purpose. In little more than a week, a report was made, which led to discussions that were carried on with great and unusual violence. In the course of these, it appeared, that, since the year 1765, the Company's expences had increased from 700,000*l.* to the enormous sum of 1,700,000*l.* annually. It also appeared, that Government had received by the net duties, the indemnity on tea, and the stipulated 400,000*l.* little less than two millions annually, whilst the Company had lost by the indemnity agreement at least one million, of which 700,000*l.* went to Government, and the remainder to the public. It was also shewn, that Government had received profits during the last five years to the amount of 3,395,000*l.* viz. by the produce of the annual payment 2,200,000*l.* and by the increase of the revenue, compared on a medium with the five preceding years, 1,195,000*l.*; that the whole of the Company's receipts of dividends during the same period, scarcely amounted to 900,000*l.* more than 6 per cent. on its capital. In short, it appeared that the mercantile profits of the Company amounted, on an average, to 464,000*l.* which would have afforded a dividend of 12½ per cent.

The Company being at this period in considerable arrears for duty, and otherwise in a state to require parliamentary assistance, a loan was proposed and granted them.

After the House of Commons had occupied itself for two months with the affairs of the Company, a bill was passed, for establishing certain regulations for the better management of the affairs of the East India Company, as well in India as in Europe. From the moment this bill received the royal assent, the Company may be considered as in a great measure, if not wholly, in the hands of the ministers of the crown. In 1776, the debt due to Government was reduced from 1,400,000*l.* to 420,000*l.* and the Company were otherwise in a flourishing situation.

On the 21st of March, 1780, Lord North moved that notice might be given for the payment of 4,200,000*l.* to this Company; in consequence of which, after three years, the charter would determine. In doing this, his lordship expressly stated the right of the public either to the whole of the territorial acquisitions and revenues, or if the Company were allowed to hold the exclusive trade any longer, to a participation of the profits; and he remarked, that as the Company had not offered such propositions as appeared fit for him to treat upon, it was his duty to state the matter to the house, and to make the motion he did; which, after some debate, was carried.

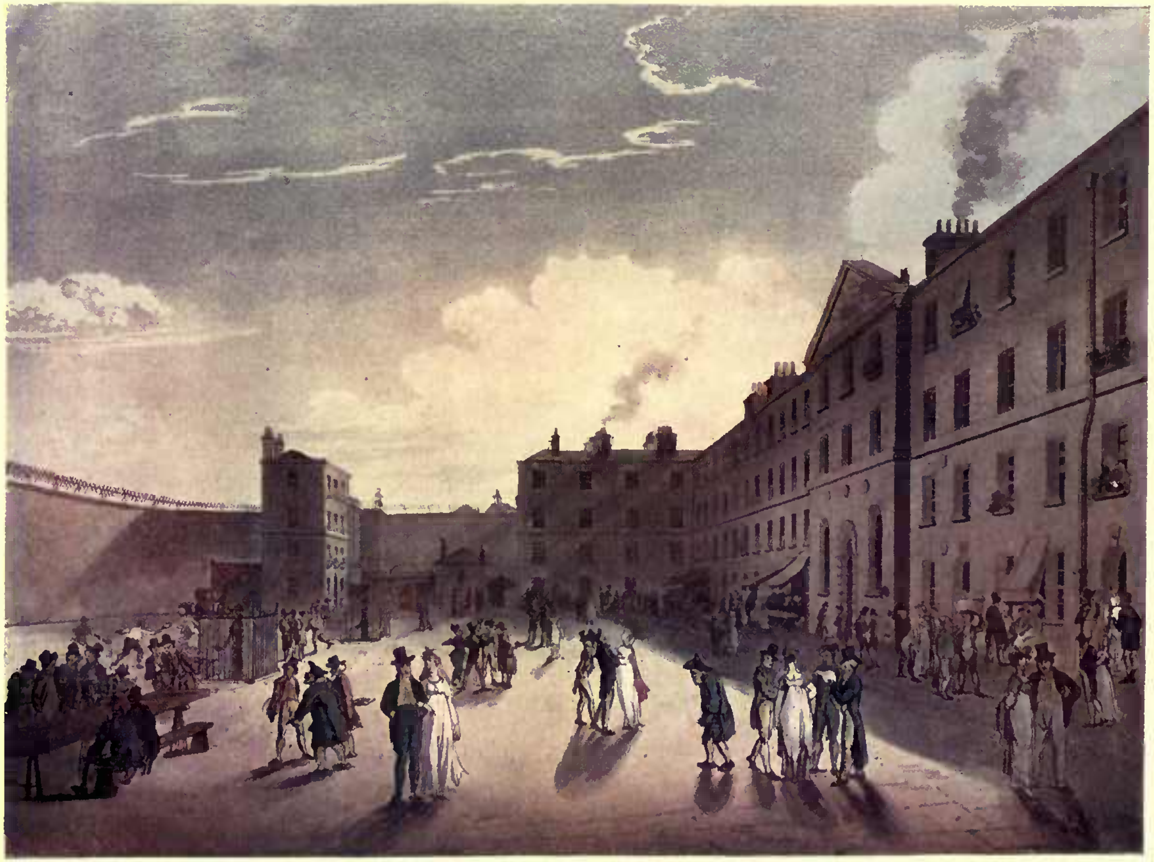
From the debates which took place at the India-House relative to the renewal of the charter, the following appeared to be the situation of the Company at this period:—The stock was valued at 3,200,000*l.* bonds and other debts 1,800,000*l.* total 5,000,000*l.* Their property in India was stated to exceed 13,000,000*l.*; the Government debt 4,200,000*l.*; and other effects in England would, it was supposed, make up at least 20,000,000*l.*; so that if the charter had not been renewed, the proprietors would have divided 400*l.* sterling for every 100*l.* stock (after paying the bond and other creditors), besides the deduction of their capital. But the terms which the minister had proposed for the renewal of the Company's charter, were deemed so injurious to the rights and so prejudicial to the interests of that body, that all negociations were broken off, and the business lay dormant for nearly two years: but, in order to accelerate the motions of the directors, the minister submitted certain propositions to Parliament, in May 1801; but Government and the directors could not come to any agreement. In general, the terms held out by the former were considered as so unjust, that it was more than once proposed, in the court of proprietors, as the best plan the Company could adopt, to dispose of all their property at home and abroad, and putting an end to the political existence, to rest their title to it on a legal decision. But the uncertain state of their situation abroad, obliged ministers to relinquish all ideas of obtaining a large sum of money from the Company for the renewal of their charter, and likewise to bring in a bill, allowing them, for a limited time, to continue the exclusive trade, to manage the territorial acquisitions in Asia, and to receive the revenue arising therefrom: the retrospective effect of this bill obliging the Company to pay the demand made by Government of 632,000*l.* under a claim of participation in its past profits, was altered, and this sum was reduced to 402,000*l.* It appeared, from a report of the committee of proprietors, appointed to examine the situation of the Company, that there was a balance in its favour, at the close of the last year, of 13,458,877*l.* including the value of the East India-House, &c.

On the 11th of November, 1803, Parliament was called together after a short recess; because, among other reasons that were stated from the throne, the situation of the East India Company was such as to claim their utmost attention. Indeed they appeared to demand some speedy as well as effectual regulations, and the administration of this period seemed determined to provide them. So early as the 18th November, they moved for leave to bring in a bill for vesting the affairs of the Company in the hands of certain commissioners, for the benefit of the proprietors and the public. This bill was accompanied by another, the professed object of which was, to preclude all kinds of arbitrary and despotic proceedings from the administration of the territorial possessions, &c. These bills, embracing objects of such importance, occasioned a prodigious national ferment, and met with a fate so extraordinary and unexpected, that, if our limits permitted, we should give abstracts of them here.

The arguments in favour of these bills arose principally from two sources:—The abuses which had prevailed in the government, and the very involved state of the Company's finances. The latter became the first object of discussion: the Company were bound by an act of Parliament not to accept bills drawn in India beyond the sum of 300,000*l.* without permission from the Lords of the Treasury; and an application had been made for that purpose, as bills were at this period coming over from Bengal for acceptance for more than 2,000,000*l.* If the Company did not receive assistance, ruin was the inevitable consequence. On the other hand, if it was necessary to permit the acceptance, it appeared equally necessary to examine into the state of the Company's affairs before the public faith was pledged for their payment, and to form some plan of regulation to prevent the occurrence of a similar situation. Mr. Fox, who was the ostensible framer of these bills, represented their actual debts as amounting to 11,000,000*l.* and their stock as worth only 3,200,000*l.*: this was necessarily a subject of public alarm. On the other hand, this statement was pronounced to be absolutely false, and the directors presented an account to the house, by which it appeared they had a surplus of at least 4,000,000*l.* In the first statement, only such parts of the stock were credited as it was supposed the Company might readily dispose of, leaving them in a condition to carry on their exclusive trade. In the other account, a general balance was struck of the whole affairs of the Company, after crediting every part of the property which belonged to them here, and in India, and afloat.—On the subject of abuses, the reports of the Indian Committees gave an horrid detail; the inferences drawn from which were, that India, instead of a resource, would become a burthen to us; that all confidence on British faith and justice had been obliterated, and our government rendered odious throughout India. To these facts and conclusions was opposed a general charge of exaggeration: but the plea of necessity which the framer of the bills urged, on the principle, that the abuses were incurable without a total change of system, was more pointedly resisted. The opposition to these bills was principally conducted by Mr. William Pitt, whose principal objections to them were founded upon their being an infringement of chartered rights, and the immense and unconstitutional influence the proposed measures were calculated to create. It was contended, that India wanted a constitutional reform, not a tyrannical alteration. That this was an attack upon the most solemn charters, that it aimed a fatal blow at the faith and integrity of Parliament, and loosened every tie by which man was bound to man. That this charter did not owe its birth to the foolish prepossession or mad prodigality of a Plantagenet, a Tudor, or a Stuart; it was a fair purchase from the public, an equal compact for reciprocal advantages between the proprietors and the nation at large. If the principles on which these bills were founded should be recognized, what security was there for other public companies? or indeed what assurance could we have for a continuance of the Great Charter itself? It was folly to suppose the operation of them would be confined to the East India Company; once established, there would never be wanting bad men to extend their effects. This charter was conceived in the clearest terms that language could express, and superior in strength and perspicuity to that of the Bank of England: the right by which the king held his sceptre was not more solemnly confirmed. The bill confiscated the property and disfranchised the members of the East India Company: the power indeed was declared to be in Parliament; but to whom were the commissioners accountable? to the proprietors? no; to a majority of Parliament, which the weakest minister might secure with the additional patronage of 2,000,000*l.* given by this bill. It was objected to on the ground of vesting in the minister a new, enormous, and unexampled patronage; and Mr. Dundas went so far as to accuse Mr. Fox of endeavouring to raise a fourth estate in the realm, which might ultimately prove dangerous, if not fatal, to the constitution of Great Britain. Petitions were presented against it by the Company, the proprietors, and the lord mayor, aldermen, and common council of London. In short, it was attacked and defended in all its stages with great spirit, perseverance, and eloquence. It was, however, supported through the house by a large majority of members, and, on the 8th December, passed the Commons on a division of 208 to 102. The next day, it was carried to the House of Lords, where it encountered a most formidable opposition. Lord Thurlow gave his decided opinion, that the bill was a most atrocious violation of private property; that it contained powers which touched the dearest rights of Englishmen, and could only be justified by the most irresistible necessity, which ought not to be admitted on the reports of a committee, but was of that importance to demand a full and fair proof by evidence at the bar of the house. The second reading took place on the 15th of the same month, and counsel was heard on the part of the Company. On the 17th, a motion was made, that the bill be rejected, which was carried by a majority of 95 against 76. The fate of this bill involved in it the fate of the administration that produced it; and on the 18th December, a new one was appointed, of which Mr. W. Pitt was made first lord of the Treasury and chancellor of the Exchequer.

Mr. Pitt immediately set about arranging the affairs of India: the leading points in the formation of a system for that purpose, related to the civil and military governments, the revenue, and the commerce. The question to whom the territorial right belonged, had never been finally settled: this, as connected with its civil and military government, was proposed to be placed under the direction of the executive government at home. Any effect on the constitution by the influence arising from the revenue or patronage, was to be sedulously avoided, and the commerce was proposed to be left free and unshackled with any influence that might disturb its progress or diminish its security. It was proposed to subject all concerns which related to the civil or military government, or revenues, of the territorial possession, to the check and controul of commissioners, chosen from the Privy Council, and powers of a very considerable magnitude were proposed to be given for that purpose. The debates upon the bill turned chiefly upon its merits or demerits as compared with that of Mr. Fox's. The superiority of the opposition in the House of Commons enabled them, by a small majority, to throw out this bill on the second reading (13th January); and Mr. Pitt displayed a firmness and magnanimity that have seldom been witnessed, in performing the duty which he considered due to his king and his country, by continuing the minister without a majority in Parliament, till the supplies were voted, in spite of the daily mortification he was subject to in such an unexampled situation. On the 24th March, Parliament was prorogued, and the next day dissolved. A new one was immediately called, which met on the 18th May, and the providing for the good government of our possessions in the East was peculiarly recommended from the throne. A select committee was immediately appointed, who made a report on the 22d June: it was ordered to be taken into consideration on the 2d July, and on this day a bill was moved for, which had for its object the relief of the Company by a respite of duties, the payment of their bills, and the settling the dividend. A bill of regulation was moved on the 6th of the same month, similar in many respects to that which had been rejected in the last Parliament: this bill was at once to constitute a new form of government at home, and to regulate the different presidencies abroad; to provide for the happiness of the natives; to put an end to all misunderstanding and controversies; and, lastly, by a more rigid mode of legislation, to exclude delinquency, and to institute a new judicature for the trial of offences committed in India. On the 16th July, a very long and violent debate took place upon this bill, when it was committed by a majority of 215. It received considerable modifications in its passage through the House of Commons, where it was passed on the 28th July, by a very great majority; and, after sustaining a violent opposition in the House of Lords, it finally passed on the 9th of August. By this bill (with some few alterations, which enlarged the powers of the Board of Controul), the political affairs of the Company have been regulated ever since that period.—In the year 1793, the Company's charter was extended to the year 1811. When the house resolved itself into a committee to take the state of the East India Company into consideration, Mr. Dundas expatiated at some length upon the flourishing state of its finances, and pointed out the propriety of continuing its exclusive trade, as well as the government of their territorial possessions. Upon the latter point, he insisted that experience was to be preferred to speculation ; and therefore he wished not to abandon a system which had consolidated the power, increased the revenues, extended the territories of our Indian empire, and had, upon the whole, been productive of the most solid advantages to the country. He reprobated the idea of throwing open the trade to adventurers of all descriptions, which would annihilate the benefits derived from Indian commerce, and prove the ruin of our Indian empire. Mr. Fox disliked many of the provisions of this bill, yet not wishing to negative it altogether, proposed that the period of the renewal should be shortened, and that the year 1797 should be fixed for its termination, instead of 1811 : but this amendment was lost, there being for it only 26, against it 132. This bill, as well as continuing the regulations before mentioned, appropriated the funds of the Company at home to specific purposes, having principally in view the liquidation of its debts in the first instance, and afterwards an appropriation of part of its profit in aid of the national revenue. We find little to notice upon the subject of the East India Company till the year 1799. The annual budget, or state of their affairs, which Mr. Dundas regularly brought before Parliament, seemed to warrant the general conclusion uniformly drawn by him, as to the immense improvement in the Company's situation since their affairs had been under his management. He now touched on a subject of some alarm to the East India Company, but highly important to the British nation, and which, in the natural progress of events, must one day force itself on the serious attention of the British legislature. The Company were not merely a commercial body, but were also trustees of the imperial revenue in India: their wealth and commerce were not only increasing, but there was no want of funds for extending it; but there was no man living who must not be sensible, that all the commerce with India, and all the wealth that might be brought home, was beyond the power or means of the East India Company. The imports from India amounted to no less a sum than five millions sterling. If this were true, and the means of the Company could bring home only two millions or less, the general interest would require, that, in some shape or other, as much as possible of the three millions should be brought to British ports in British vessels.—On the 12th June, 1801, as the last account of his Indian administration, Mr. Dundas laid before the house a distinct view of financial affairs, and general information as to the situation of the Company, upon which he founded several resolutions; the most material of which affirmed, that, on the 1st March, 1801, the debts of the East India Company amounted to 5,393,989*l.* their effects to 15,404,736*l.* and that their sales had increased since February 1793, from 4,988,300*l.* to 7,602,041*l.* which resolutions passed the committee, and were adopted by the house.

Since the year 1801, when Mr. Dundas's statement was laid before the House of Commons, the war in Europe has so affected the trade in Indian articles with the Continent of Europe, and the wars in India, from which very large acquisitions of territory have been made, have so far absorbed the funds that, under different circumstances, would have been employed for commercial purposes, that no just conclusion can be drawn of the future extent and importance of the Indian trade with the mother country: but it is, nevertheless, proper to state, that, since that period, the revenue at home has been benefited from Indian commerce to the amount of 2,950,000*l.* per annum; that the exports on account of the Company only have amounted to 1,975,000*l.* per annum, the whole of which consisted of articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of Great Britain, except to the amount of 87,000*l.* per annum; that the number of tons cleared out for India and China, amounted to 41,380 per annum; and that the persons now employed on the home establishment of this important Company, exceed 3670.



Pugin & Rowlandson, delt. et sculpt

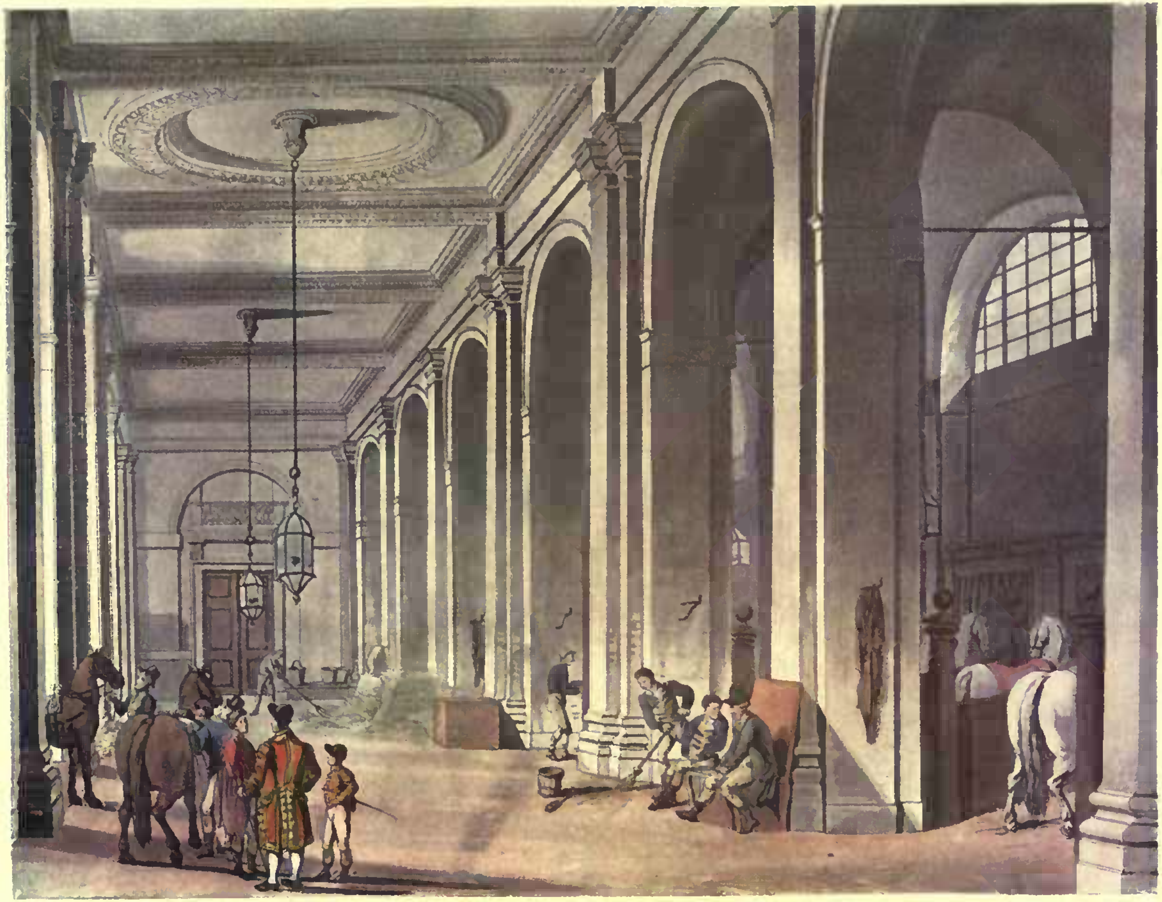
KINGS BENCH PRISON.

KING'S BENCH PRISON

THIS Prison is situated at the north-east corner of the road which runs through St. George's-fields to Westminster bridge. It is a place of confinement for debtors, and for those who are sentenced by the Court of King's Bench for libels and other misdemeanors; but such as are able to purchase the liberties, may have the benefit of walking through a part of the Borough and in St. George's-fields. The walls of this Prison are very high, and all prospect beyond them is excluded, even from the uppermost windows. There is a neat chapel belonging to it, in which divine worship is regularly performed. The rooms are nearly all alike, and measure about 9 feet square. The building, which is constructed of brick, is very extensive; and the marshal, who has the keeping of this Prison, has very handsome apartments on the outside. Prisoners from any other gaol may be removed to this by habeas corpus.

THE KING'S MEWS

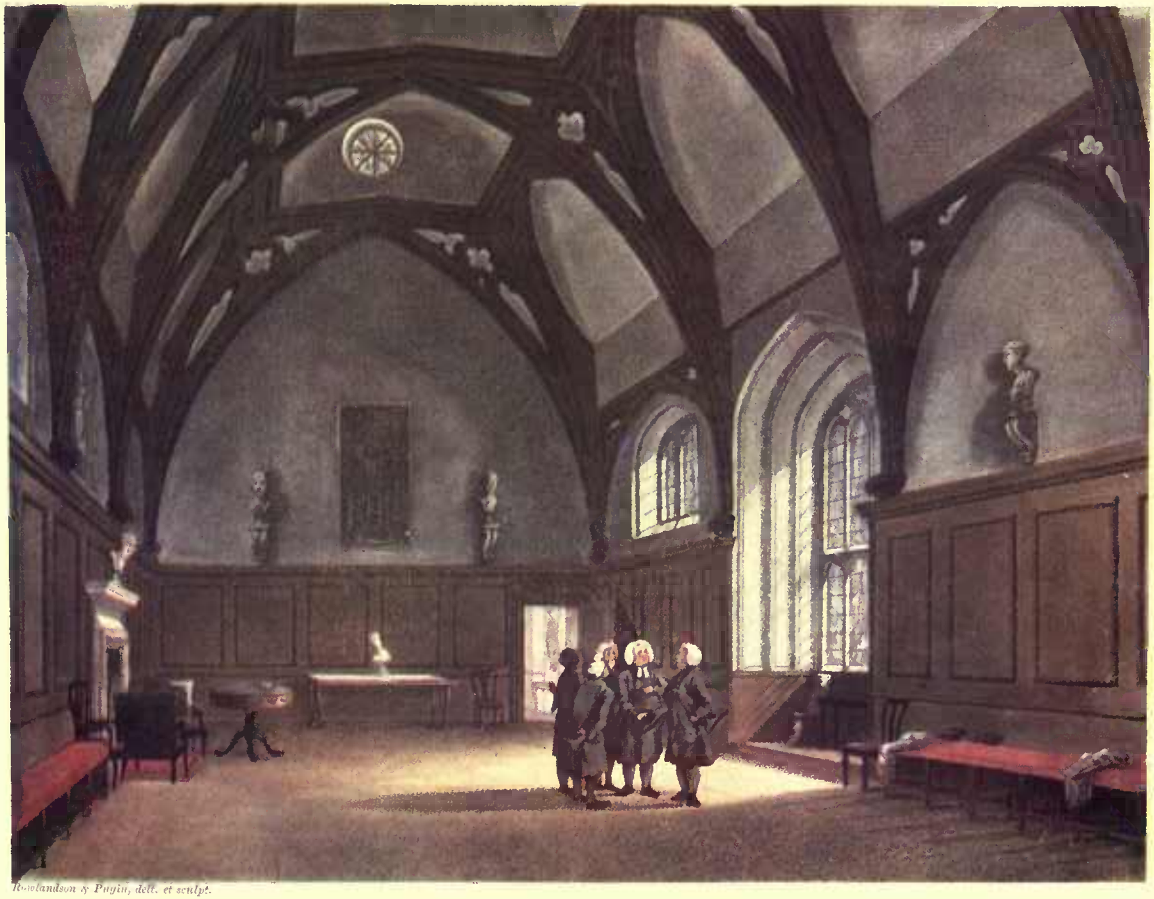
IS a large square, situated a little to the north of Charing-Cross. One side of this square is a very handsome building, used as stables for his majesty's horses. This is a place of great antiquity, and derives its name from the word *mew*, which signifies to moult or cast feathers. It was used for the accommodation of the king's falconers and hawks so early as the year 1377; but the king's stables at Lomesbury (now called Bloomsbury) being destroyed by fire in the year 1537, King Henry VIII. caused the hawks to be removed, and the Mews enlarged and fitted up for the reception of his majesty's horses, and the royal stables have ever since been kept in this place. The old building being decayed, the north side was erected in a magnificent manner by George II. in the year 1732. The center of this building, which is very noble, is enriched with columns of the Doric order and a pediment. The appearance of this building is very much injured by the mean buildings which form the other sides of the square: if these were rebuilt, to correspond with the north side, and an opening made to Charing-Cross, the Royal Mews would be a great ornament to the metropolis.



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt. et sculpt.

KING'S MEWS,

CHARING CROSS.



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt. et sculpt.

LAMBETH PALACE.

LAMBETH PALACE

THIS Palace has been for many ages the residence of the Archbishops of Canterbury: it is a large irregular building, composed of many parts, erected at different periods, of which it is extremely difficult to convey any distinct idea. The principal, and to a stranger the most interesting parts, are the gate-house, built by Archbishop Morton, the chapel and vestry, the Lollards' tower, the gallery, the library, and the hall; besides which, there are many fine rooms worthy of attention. These buildings, with the park and gardens, formerly occupied thirteen acres of ground. The name *Lambeth* is Saxon, and is variously written, *Lambhyde*, or *Lamhythe*, *Lamhyht*, or *Lamyte*, or *Lamhithe;* which, according to Camden, signifies a dirty station. It was probably a royal manor, as ancient historians inform us, that Hardicanute died here in 1042, amidst the jollity of a wedding dinner at the marriage of Toni with Gytha, two noble Danes. By some it has been imagined that he was poisoned, by others that he died of intemperance, and that the Hog's-tide, or Hock-Wednesday, was kept for centuries after in commemoration of this event, and the consequent deliverance of this kingdom from the power of the Danes. It is here that Harold is said to have snatched the crown, and to have placed it on his own head, after the death of Edward the Confessor. About this time it belonged to Goda, sister to King Edward, who married Eustace, Earl of Bologne, who gave it to the See of Rochester. It was seized by William the Conqueror, but afterwards restored with the church. In 1197, Lambeth became the property of the See of Canterbury, by a fair exchange between Glanville, Bishop of Rochester, and Archbishop Hubert Walter: the latter of whom had intended to erect here a college of secular monks, a plan which originated with Baldwin; but Walter was likewise obliged to abandon the design, in consequence of a bull obtained from the pope for that purpose. In 1216, Archbishop Boniface obtained a bull from Urban IV. to repair or rebuild the Palace, as an expiation for his outrageous behaviour to the prior of St. Bartholomew, in Smithfield. It was likewise enlarged by his successors, particularly Chichely, who was primate from 1414 to 1443, and who built the Lollards' tower. "Neither Protestants nor Catholics," says Pennant, "should omit visiting this tower, the cruel prison of the unhappy followers of Wickliffe. The vast staples and rings to which they were chained before they were brought to the stake, ought to make Protestants bless the hour which freed them from so bloody a period; Catholics may glory that time has softened their zeal into charity for all sects, and make them blush at the memorials of the misguided zeal of our ancestors.

Cardinal Morton, who died in 1500, improved the Palace very much, and built the magnificent gateway; Cardinal Pole is said to have added the long gallery; other parts have been added by succeeding archbishops.

During the civil wars, and the period of fanaticism which succeeded, every building devoted to piety suffered from the effects of political and religious bigotry. Almost all the fine specimens of art, and even the sacred memorials of the dead, were abandoned to the ferocious hands of Puritanical barbarism and sacrilegious plunder. Lambeth Palace fell to the lot of Scot and Hardynge, who pulled down the noble hall built by Chichely, and sold the materials. The chapel was converted into a dancing-room, and the tomb of the venerable Archbishop Parker was broken to pieces, his body dug up and buried in a dunghill. Upon the restoration of Charles I. the wretch Hardynge was obliged to discover where the body was; whereupon the archbishop had him re-interred in the same chapel, near the steps of the altar. The Palace was at one period a prison for the Royalists. Archbishop Juxton finding it almost reduced to ruins, rebuilt a considerable part of it, particularly the great hall, which is erected upon the ancient model: it is a fine noble fabric, yet standing. Archbishop Bancroft, who died in 1600, began the library, and left his books to his successors for ever; the worthy prelate Secker left all such books from his own library as were not already in the former; Archbishop Cornwallis bestowed a great number in his lifetime; and the present archbishop has expended a considerable sum in fitting up a proper repository for the valuable manuscripts: many additions have likewise been made by him, particularly to the great gallery, which is near 90 feet long by 15 feet 9 inches broad; to this has been added a bow window, and an opening has been made towards the river, by cutting down some trees, which admits a beautiful view of the water, the bridge, of the venerable abbey, and part of St. Paul's. The chapel consists of a body only, measuring 72 feet in length, 25 in breadth, and is 30 feet high; it is divided into an inner and outer chapel by a handsome carved screen : it has a flat panelled ceiling, painted in compartments, done by order of Archbishop Laud : the pavement is composed of squares of black and white marble, laid chequer-wise. The Lollards' tower is ascended by a spiral stone staircase, at the top of which is a room about 12 feet long and 9 broad. If tradition had not identified this room as the prison of the ancient religious sect from which it derives its name, it bears sufficient evidence of its former horrid destination. There are eight large rings fastened to the wainscot that lines the walls : it has two small windows, one on the west, and another on the north side ; there is likewise a chimney on the north side, upon which are various scratches, half sentences, initials, &c. cut with rude instruments by the prisoners who have been supposed to have inhabited this apartment ; they are in the old English character, and not easily decyphered. The exterior of this tower has a venerable appearance, and is the only part remaining built entirely of stone : it is five stories high ; the lower stories are now used as cellars. The building is finely shaded with the venerable trees of what is called the Bishop's-walk.

The building of the gallery is ascribed to Cardinal Pole. It is entitled to particular attention, from the valuable collection of portraits of primates and other dignitaries with which it is ornamented : among them is a portrait of the founder, which is supposed by Ducarel to be genuine.

Among the portraits are those of Archbishops *Arundel* and *Chichely*. The fine portrait of *Warham*, painted by Holbein : this picture is well known from Vertue's large print. Archbishop *Parker*, supposed to be painted by Richard Lyne. There is a second portrait of the same prelate, said to be by Holbein, presented to Archbishop Potter, by J. West, Esq. President of the Royal Society.

Martin Luther, a small head, but whether original or not is uncertain.

Cranmer, *Whitgift*, and an imaginary head of *St. Dunstan*, *Grindal*, *Sheldon*, &c. &c. have nothing remarkable.

A singular portrait of *Catherine Parr* has found a place here, according to Pennant, not without reason.

There is a fine picture of Archbishop *Abbot*, of date 1610; and another by Vandyke, of *Laud*. This last is an admirable portrait.—The other portraits in this gallery are chiefly those of eminent modern bishops, and are too numerous to particularize within our limits. The windows are enriched with stained glass: some of them are beautiful; others appear to be of a great age, and to have been very carefully preserved. The library occupies the four galleries over the cloisters, forming a small quadrangle. It is said by Aubrey to have been founded by Sheldon, but there is evidence of its having existed at a much earlier period. It was more probably founded by Boniface.

In 1646, the library was seized by the Parliament, about two years after Laud was executed. It was saved from destruction by an ingenious device of Mr. Selden, who suggested to the University of Cambridge their right to the books: Juxton, and afterwards Sheldon, applied for them to be returned, which was accordingly done after the Restoration.

The whole number deposited in this library exceeds 25,000 volumes, and *were* valued at 2,500*l*.—*J. L. Nevé's* LIVES, &c.

The library contains many paintings and curiosities, and some neat views of this Palace; an original impression of the large scarce plan of London, by Ralph Aggas; a set of prints of all the Archbishops of Canterbury from 1504; and a series of the most eminent reformers of the Protestant church. The windows likewise contain some beautiful stained glass.

Near the chimney is a singular curiosity; the shell of a land tortoise, which lived to the great age of 120 years, and might possibly have lived till this time if it had not been killed by the negligence of the gardener. The hall is a noble building, and measures 93 feet in length, in breadth 38, and in height upwards of 50: the architecture was intended to be *Gothic*, but is really of a very mixed kind. It stands on the site of the old hall, and was built by Archbishop Juxton; who could not be persuaded to build it in a more modern style, though it would have cost less money. The roof is slated, and ornamented with a noble lantern, which rises in the center; at the top are the arms of the See of Canterbury, quartered with those of Juxton, and surmounted with the archiepiscopal mitre: the roof is a work of much labour and ingenuity, and is constructed entirely of oak. At the upper end of the hall is the archbishop's seat: the whole is wainscotted to a great height, and the floor handsomely paved. Two of the great oak tables are dated 1664. "The reason," says the historian of the Palace, "why such large halls were built in the seats and houses of our ancient nobility and gentry, was, that there might be room to exercise the generous hospitality which prevailed among our ancestors; and which was, without question, duly exercised by most of the great possessors of this mansion, though not particularly recorded, but most eminently by Winchelsey, Cranmer, and Parker."

Cardinal Pole had a patent from Philip and Mary to retain 100 servants.

Parker had a similar grant for forty.*

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* But he had a great many more, as appears from the chequer-roll of his household :

"All these had allowance for their diett in the hall at Lamhith, as first was the steward's table, on the one side for himself, his two fellow-officers, gentlemen of the horse, secretaries, gentleman usher, that waited not at the archbishop's table with other gentlemen waiters ; and if al cold not sit theare, thei were placed at the gentlemen's table : next to that table, over against the steward's table, on the other side of the hall, had the almoner his table, with the chapleins and the stewdents, and either of thes tables had like allowance of diett, manchet, and wine. The gentlemen's long table, at first sitting, was for some gentlemen of household and manors, and for the archbishop's waiters, when he had dined ; on the other side, against them, sat the yeoman waiters, and yeoman officers that attended not, and meaner sort of strangers. At the table next the hall dore, sat the cooks and attendant yeomen officers ; over against them, sat the gromes (before mentioned) of the stable and other extern places ; then at the nether end of the hall, by the pantry, was a table whereat was dailie entertained eyht or ten of the poor of the town by turns."

Strype gives us this further account of Archbishop Parker's hospitality :

"In the daily eating, this was the custom : the steward, with the servants that were gentlemen of better rank, sat down at the tables in the hall on the right hand, and the almoner, with the clergy and the other servants, sat on the other side, where there was plenty of all sorts of provision, both for eating and drinking ; the daily fragments thereof did suffice to fill the bellies of a great number of poor haungry people that waited at the gate : and so constant and unfailing was the provision at my lord's table, that whoever came in either at dinner or supper, being not above the degree of a knight, might here be entertained worthy of his quality, either at the steward's or almoner's table ; and, moreover, it was the archbishop's command to his servants, that all strangers should be received and treated with all manner of civility and respect, and that places at the table should be assigned to them according to their dignity and quality, which redounded much to the praise and commendation of the archbishop. The discourse and conversation at meals was devoid of all brawls and loud talking, and, for the most part, consisted in framing men's manners to religion, or in some other honest and beseeming subject. There was a monitor of the hall, and if it happened that any spoke too loud, or concerning things less decent, it was presently hushed by one that cried silence. The archbishop loved hospitality, and no man shewed it so much, or with better order, though he himself was very abstemious."

Indeed, before Parker's time, the charity of the archbishops was truly astonishing. Robert Winchelsey, during his primacy, we are informed by Godwin, not only maintained

Besides what we have mentioned, there are many other noble apartments in this extensive residence, which contain nothing very interesting.

The great gate was built about the year 1490, by Cardinal Morton, in the manner we now see it. It is perhaps the most magnificent building of the kind existing, for its size and height. On one side of the porter's lodge is a small room, with three great iron rings fastened to the wall; from which circumstance, it has been suggested that this room was a supplemental prison to the Lollards' tower. At this gate the dole annually given by the archbishops of the See of Canterbury is distributed.

The dole now given at Lambeth-gate consists of fifteen quartern loaves, nine stone of beef, and five shillings worth of halfpence: they are divided into three equal proportions, and distributed, every Sunday, Tuesday, and Thursday, among thirty poor parishioners of Lambeth. The beef is made into broth, and thickened with oatmeal, divided into ten equal shares, and is distributed with half of one of the loaves, a pitcher of the broth, and two-pence, to as many poor persons, who are thus weekly

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many poor scholars at the universities, but was exceedingly bountiful to other persons in distress; "insomuch," says he, "as therein I think he excelled all the archbishops that either were before or after him. Besides the daily fragments of his house, he gave every Friday and Sunday unto every beggar that came to his doore, a loafe of breade of a farthing price (sufficient for a day, according to Stowe); and there were usually on such alms-days, in time of dearth, to the number of 5000, but in a plentiful 4000, and seldom or never under, which, *communibus annis*, amounted unto 500 a yere: over and above this, he used to give, on every great festival-day, 150 pence to so many poore people, and sende daily meate, drink, and breade, unto such as, by reason of age or sickness, were not able to fetch alms at his gate, and to sende money, meate, and apparel, &c. to such as he thought wanted the same and were ashamed to beg; but of all other he was wont to take the greatest compassion upon those that by any misfortune were decaied, and had fallen from wealth to poor estate."

relieved by rotation. Besides this relief, his grace distributes very considerable sums annually to poor housekeepers. A correspondent in the *Gentleman's Magazine* mentions a custom annually observed at Lambeth Palace-gate, and is described as follows:

"On the annual aquatic procession of the Lord Mayor of London to Westminster, the barge of the company of stationers, which is usually the first in the shew, proceeds to Lambeth Palace, where, for time immemorial, they have received a present of sixteen bottles of the archbishop's prime wine. This custom, I am informed, originated at the beginning of the present century. When Archbishop Tenison enjoyed the see, a very near relation of his, who happened to be master of the stationers' company, thought it a compliment to call there in full state, and in his barge: when the archbishop being informed that the number of the company within the barge was thirty-two, he thought that a pint of wine for each would not be disagreeable; and ordered, at the same time, that a sufficient quantity of new bread and old cheese, with plenty of strong ale, should be given to the watermen and the attendants: and from that accidental circumstance it has grown into a settled custom. The company, in return, present to the archbishop a copy of the several almanacks which they have the peculiar privilege of publishing."

The park and the gardens owe much of their elegance to the taste of the late archbishop, by whom they were enlarged and laid out: they now occupy at least eighteen acres. These gardens contain two uncommon fig-trees, the planting of which tradition ascribes to Cardinal Pole; they cover a surface of wall extending 50 feet in height and 40 in breadth. The kitchen garden is entirely walled in, and contains between three and four acres.

In the riots of 1780, the Palace of Lambeth narrowly escaped destruction. A party of the mob, consisting of about 500, came to the Palace with great military parade, crying "No Popery," and threatened to return in the evening, the gates being shut. In the mean time, a party of about 100 of the guards arrived: the mob continued to parade and threaten for some days. In this alarming situation, the Archbishop Cornwallis and his family were persuaded to retire from the Palace, which they did on the 7th June, not leaving a single soldier within the walls. About seven in the evening, a party of the North Hants arrived; and from this period till August 11th, from 200 to 300 soldiers were quartered in the Palace: the officers were lodged in the best apartments, and entertained with great hospitality by the two chaplains, at the expence of the archbishop. As to the soldiers, they attended chapel regularly, morning and evening; and, with their wives and children, had their meals in the hall: such of them as were upon duty had their meals afterwards. They were accommodated for sleeping in the stables, coach-houses, &c.; and during their stay at Lambeth, from the 6th June to August 11, not the least complaint could be made of irregular behaviour in any one individual, through the great attention of the different officers who commanded them.

In the summer of the year 1783, a most daring robbery was committed here. His grace had directed several alterations to be made: a great number of workmen were employed; and for greater security, a door leading to the plate-closet was bricked up.

The person who acted as chief agent in the robbery was a labourer. This man conducted himself so artfully, that the steward, observing him sitting on the stairs at meal-times, and admiring what he thought his sobriety, ordered him a pint of ale every day; but the fact appears to be, that he chose these opportunities for making his observations.

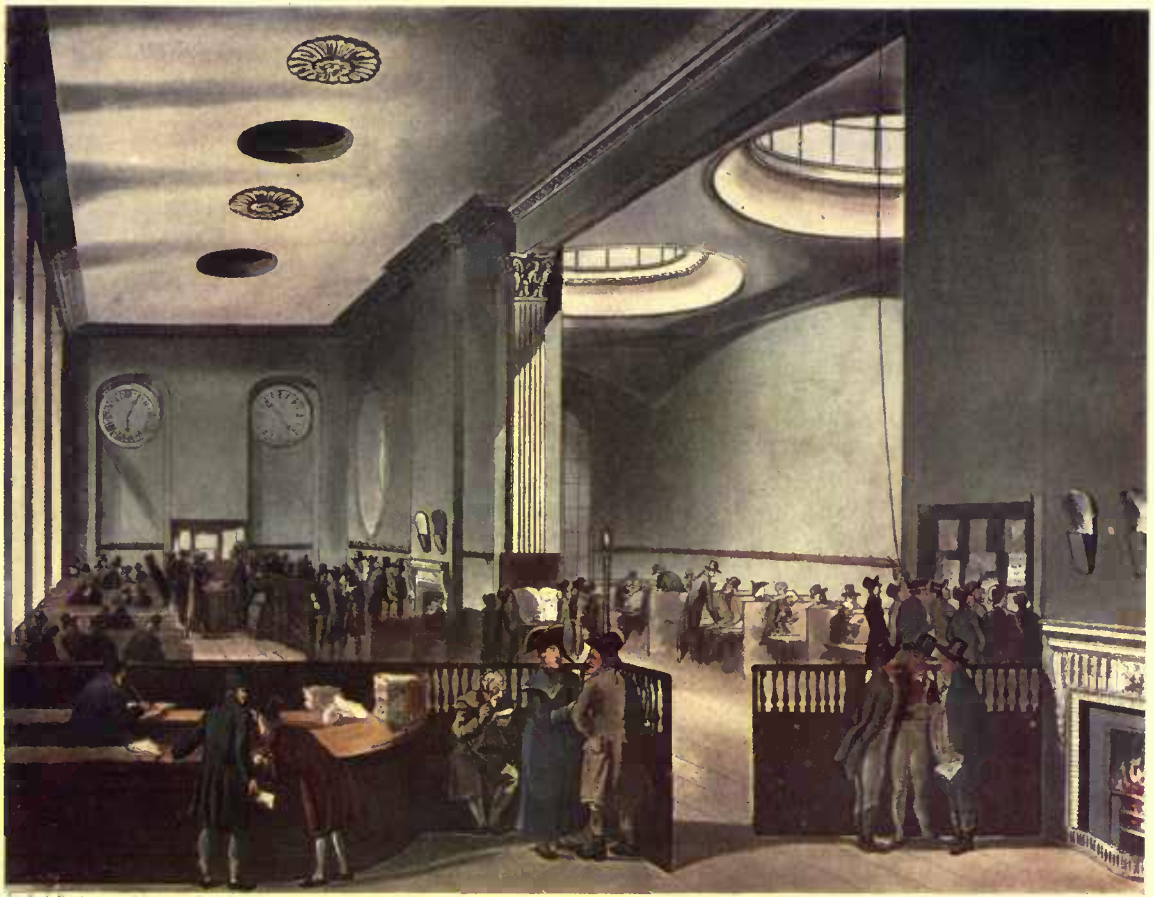
The robbery was discovered the morning after it was committed: the fresh brick-work having been removed from the door-way, and an old cutlass, with which it had been done, lay on the ground. On searching the chest, plate worth 3000*l.* was missed. Great exertions were made to find out the culprits, but to no purpose: at length they were discovered in a very extraordinary manner. Some months had now elapsed, when it happened that two lightermen, who had been kept up by the tide running late, thought they heard an unusual noise in a timber-yard adjoining them; and climbing up the wall, observed two men, as they thought, hammering pewter pots. Arming themselves with pistols, they scaled the walls, upon which the whole party disappeared immediately: they were, however, fortunate enough to catch one man at the entrance of a drain; who, being threatened, acknowledged the robbery. A considerable part of the plate was found in the drain, part of it was traced to a melting-house in Thames-street, and upwards of 300*l.* worth had been sold to refiners in London. The man thus taken was the only one who suffered for this robbery: his companions effected their escape to Holland; and though they were afterwards seen in London, and might have been secured, the archbishop, having delivered up one criminal as an example to public justice, humanely forbore to prosecute.

The loss sustained by this robbery, independent of the plate recovered, was estimated at 1000*l.*

LLOYD'S

THIS place has acquired a celebrity in the commercial world, which entitles it to notice in a work of this nature. Its name is supposed to have been derived originally from a coffee-house in Lombard-street, kept by a person named Lloyd, much frequented, about the middle of the last century, by merchants, bankers, &c. It is in the nature of success to create rivalship: accordingly, about fifty years since, a house was opened in Pope's Head-alley (in opposition to the former house), which assumed the name of *New Lloyd's:* this occasioned a great falling off in the business of the old house, which eventually declined altogether.

The trade of the country increasing very fast about the year 1771 or 2, *New Lloyd's* was found to be insufficient for the accommodation of the merchants, ship-owners, &c. who made it a place of meeting for business; in consequence of which about one hundred merchants entered into a subscription, for the purpose of erecting another house upon a more enlarged and liberal scale. At this period, the buildings now called Lloyd's being offered to them, they were taken, as their contiguity to the Royal Exchange, and the extensive accommodations which they afforded, made the situation extremely desirable: the subscribers were therefore only called upon for 15*l.* upon their subscriptions;



Pugin & Rowlandson, delt. et sculp.

LLOYD'S SUBSCRIPTION ROOM.

which sum is at present paid by every gentleman who is admitted. This payment is placed in a fund to answer any demands for the interest of the house, and by means of it the rooms are supported. This society has for some years shewn the example of many liberal subscriptions for the relief of sufferers in our naval victories; and towards the Patriotic Fund the subscribers voted 20,000*l.* besides their individual subscriptions, many of which amounted to 1000*l.* and we believe there were none under 100*l.*

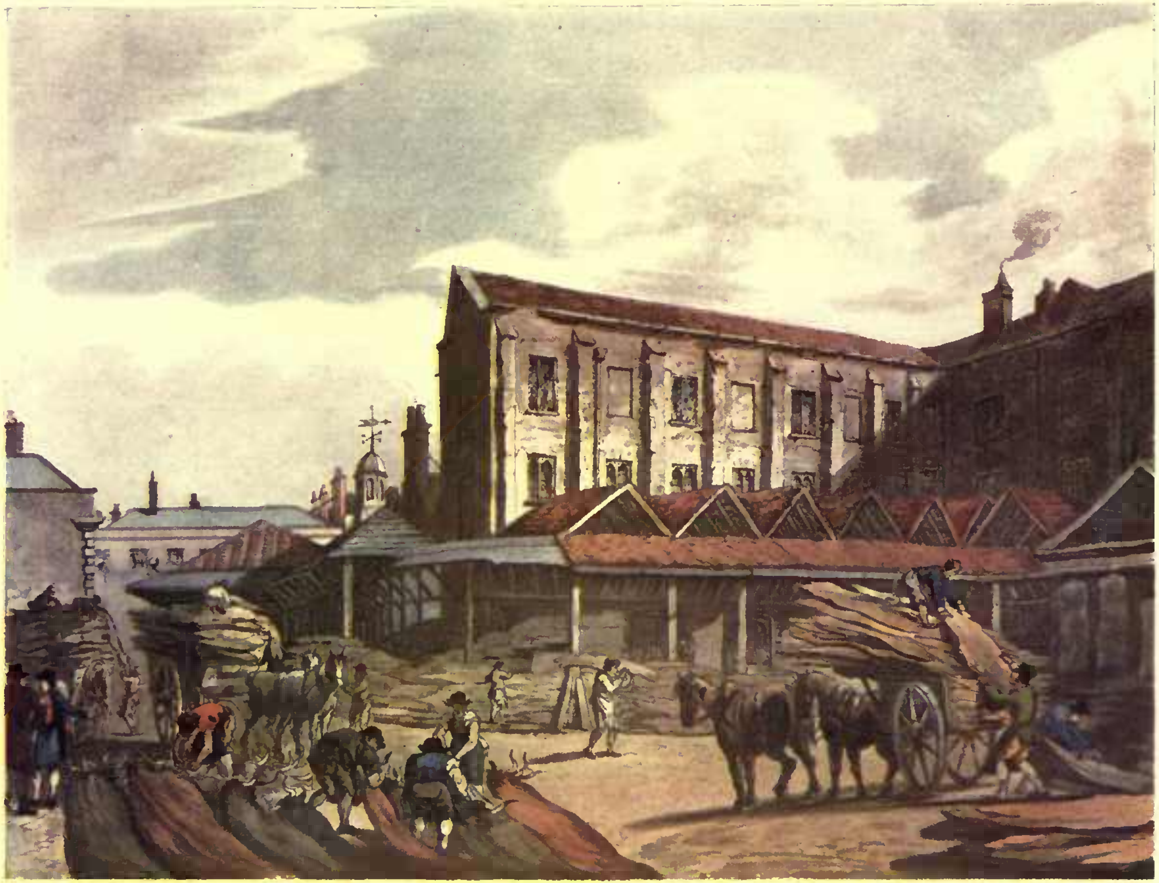
The subscription-room, which is represented in the plate, is 74 feet 8 inches long, 19 feet 5 inches wide, and 18 feet 8 inches high: it was opened in the year 1786. The adjoining room is 85 feet 2 inches long, 21 feet wide, and 19 feet 1 inch high, and was opened in the year 1791. A third room, adjoining, is 61 feet 9 inches long, 20 feet wide, and 18 feet 7 inches high, and was opened in 1802. These rooms are for the use of merchants, underwriters, brokers, &c.

There are besides two coffee-rooms, one of which is 55 feet 2 inches long, 15 feet 6 inches wide, and 17 feet 6 inches high; the other is 48 feet 8 inches long, 20 feet wide, and 20 feet 3 inches high: these were opened in the year 1774, at which time the latter was appropriated for the use of subscribers only. In the former, ships are now sold by auction, and notices of vessels bound to the Leeward Islands are put up: they are both principally frequented by persons more immediately connected with concerns of this nature. There are two other rooms for committees on the affairs of the house, which are fitted up with maps, &c.

LEADENHALL MARKET

LEADENHALL is a large and extensive building, of considerable antiquity; it is situated upon the south side, and near the west end, of Leadenhall-street: it was originally a manor-house of Sir Hugh Neville, and was purchased by the great Whittington in the year 1408, and by him presented to the city. In the year 1419, Sir Thomas (or Simon) Eyre, erected a public granary, with a view to supply the wants of the poor in seasons of scarcity. This granary was built with stone, in nearly its present form: it has flat battlements at the top, which are covered with lead. In the year 1511, a great scarcity was apprehended, but the munificent precaution of Roger Archiley had filled this granary, which contributed in a great measure to alleviate the distresses that succeeded. A chapel was built by Sir —— Eyre, in the square, and 3000 marks left to the drapers' company for its endowment, but the institution was never executed. In 1406, a religious house was founded by William Rouse and two others, for the support of sixty priests, whose duty it was to perform divine service daily to those who frequented the market.

This house has been applied to many other purposes: at one period it was the city arsenal; and from its strength, was considered as the principal fortress of the city in case of popular tumult. Stowe says, "that, in his youth, the common beam for weighing wool and other wares, was in a part of the north



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt. et sculpt.

LEADEN HALL MARKET.

quadrant, on the east side of the north gate; on the west side of the gate were scales to weigh meal; the other three sides were reserved, for the most part, to the making and resting of the pageants shewed at the Midsummer, in the watch; the remnant of the sides and quadrants were employed for the stowage of woolpacks, but not closed up: the lofts above were partly used by painters in working for the decking of pageants and other devices; and the residue was let to merchants, wool-winders, and packers." It is at present the largest, and perhaps the best supplied market in Europe: it consists of three squares, or courts; the first of which opens into Leadenhall-street, and is called the Beef-market: on Tuesdays this court is a market for leather; on Thursdays, for Colchester baize and for wool; on Fridays it is a market for hides; and on Saturdays, for beef. The second court was formerly a green plot of ground, and is still called the Green-yard: it became a store-yard for the building materials belonging to the city, and is now a market for veal, mutton, lamb, &c.: in the middle, and on the south and west sides, are houses and shops for fishmongers.

At the east end is a market-house, erected upon columns, with vaults beneath, and rooms above; under the latter are the butchers' stalls: there are likewise a bell-tower and a clock.

In the passages leading to the several streets in the vicinity of this market, are fishmongers, poulterers, and cheesemongers' shops. The herb-market is held in another square or court, formed by these buildings. This market was rebuilt in the year 1730, and is called the New-market: in the same year there were shops built in the part called the Old Bacon-market, which are chiefly occupied by poulterers and dealers in bacon.

By an act 24th Henry VIII. c. 3. beef, pork, mutton, and veal were first directed to be sold by weight; no person to take above one halfpenny for a pound of beef or pork, nor above three farthings for mutton or veal. On this occasion, James Howell, in his *Londinopolis*, remarks that the number of butchers in London and its suburbs did not then exceed eighty, each of whom killed nine oxen weekly. This law was afterwards repealed, and the regulation of prices referred to a committee of the privy council.

Until about the year 1533, the magistrates of the city had permitted any butchers to bring their meat twice in the week to Leadenhall-street, and there to expose it for sale on stalls erected before the houses, the occupiers of which derived considerable advantage from the same; but it being considered, that the revenue of the city might be increased very materially by obliging all the butchers to repair to the new stalls erected in Leadenhall, it was, in the year 1533, ordered by the court of aldermen, that they should sell their meat in Leadenhall Market, and no where else. About ninety years preceding this period, the *Chronicon Preciosum* gives us the prices of the following provisions, viz. wheat 4*s.* 4*d.* a fat ox 1*l.* 11*s.* 1*d.* a hog 3*s.* a goose 3*d.* pigeons 4*d.* per doz.; but money was then twice the weight of our modern coin. At this rate an equal quantity of our money would probably, on a medium, go about five times as far then as in our days; so that the prices were what would be equal to the following ones with us, viz. wheat 2*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.* per quarter, a fat ox 15*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.* a hog 1*l.* 10*s.* a goose 2*s.* 6*d.* a dozen of pigeons 3*s.* 4*d.* It was this same year enacted by Parliament, that when wheat was so cheap as 6*s.* 8*d.* per quarter, rye 4*s.* and barley 3*s.* they might be exported without a licence.

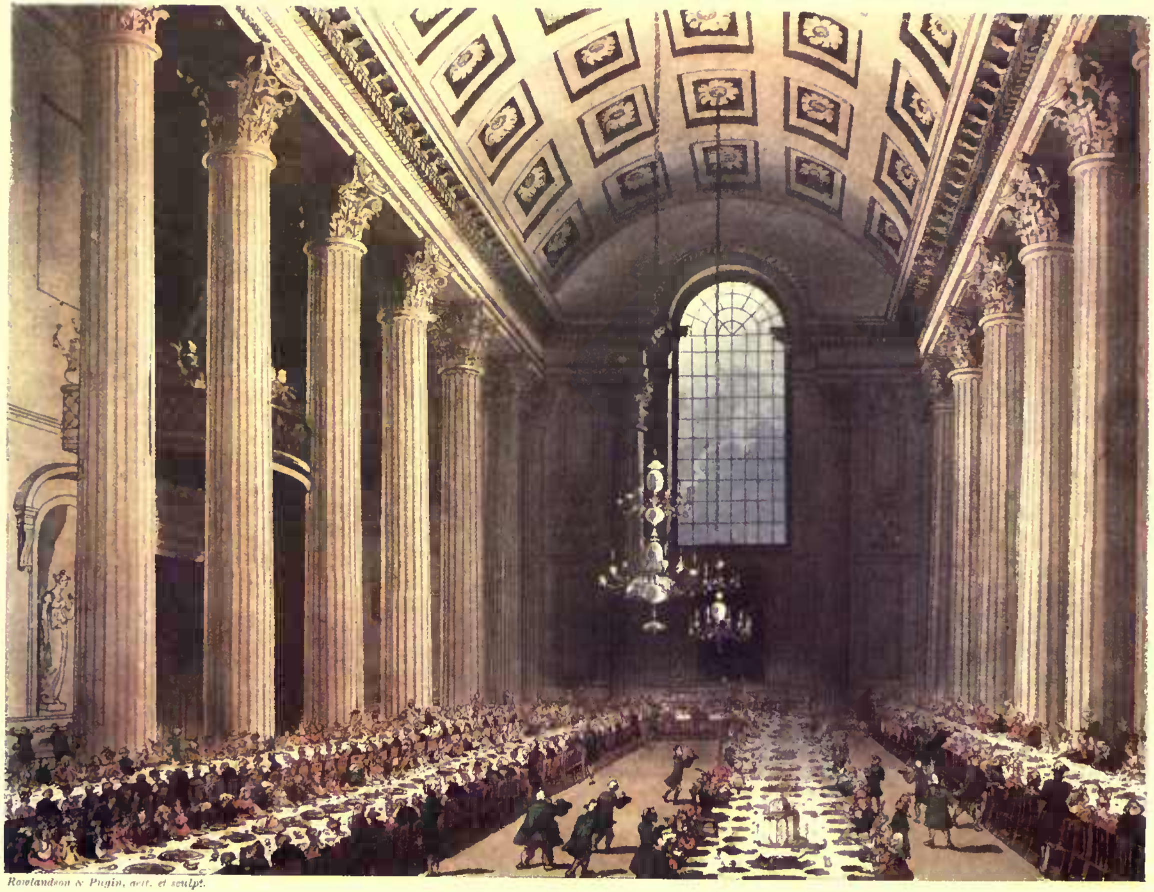
We are indebted to the same author for the price of the following articles about the same period:—Ale per gallon 1½*d.* hay per load 3*s.* 6½*d.* a young swan 3*s.* 100 stock fish for 17*s.* 6*d.* 3000 red herrings for 1*l.* 11*s.* bullocks and heifers (these were probably but calves) at 5*s.* each; fine linen for surplices and the altar, at 18*d.* per yard.

The butchers' company is of very great antiquity, having been fined so early as the 26th of Henry II. for setting up a guild without the royal licence. Its present charter was granted in the 3d James I. who incorporated them on the 16th September, 1605, by the name of *The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty of the Art or Mystery of Butchers of the City of London.* It is a livery company, and the twenty-fourth in the city list. It is governed by a master, five wardens, and twenty-one assistants. The fine on admission is ten guineas. The present clerk or solicitor to this company, is Thomas Street, Esq. Philpot-lane. The number of oxen slaughtered in London is about 2884 weekly, on an average—of sheep 17,303—of calves 763.

We may form some opinion of the great number of cattle that are slaughtered for the supply of this great metropolis and a circuit of fifteen miles, from the following returns made by the inspectors under the Flaying Act, being the number of hides and skins inspected by them during one year, from the 1st January, 1807, to the 1st January, 1808:

1807.	*Cattle.*	*Calves.*	*Sheep.*	1807.	*Cattle.*	*Calves.*	*Sheep.*
January	17,039	3211	73,153	July	9,673	5675	85,845
February	12,411	2329	58,060	August	9,180	4548	105,701
March	12,447	2309	58,505	September	11,432	3409	79,553
April	12,678	3021	69,061	October	16,907	3529	83,695
May	9,848	2761	80,064	November	15,430	2936	66,088
June	8,912	3632	77,625	December	14,202	2352	62,437

So early as the time of Henry VII. the wardens of the leather-sellers' company were empowered to inspect sheep, lamb, and calf leather throughout the kingdom. We shall perhaps the less wonder at this, when we consider the article of leather was the second staple of the kingdom at that period: indeed we cannot attribute to it a degree of consequence very much inferior at the present moment, if we are correct in our statement, that the hides and skins brought to Leadenhall Market are estimated to produce 300,000*l.* per annum; that in the hands of the currier they acquire an advance in value of at least 150 per cent. which would make the article in this state worth 750,000*l.* and adding the ratio of 150 per cent. for its subsequent value, after having gone through the different stages of manufacture, its ulterior amount will approach to nearly two millions: but when it is recollected, that many of the articles made of sheep-skin, which is perhaps worth only one shilling in its raw state, acquires an additional value of seven or eight, this calculation will perhaps be thought too low; it will at least evince the importance of this great article of home consumption as well as exportation, and may perhaps excite a degree of curiosity to be better acquainted with a subject, which our limits prevent us from detailing more at large.



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt. et sculpt.

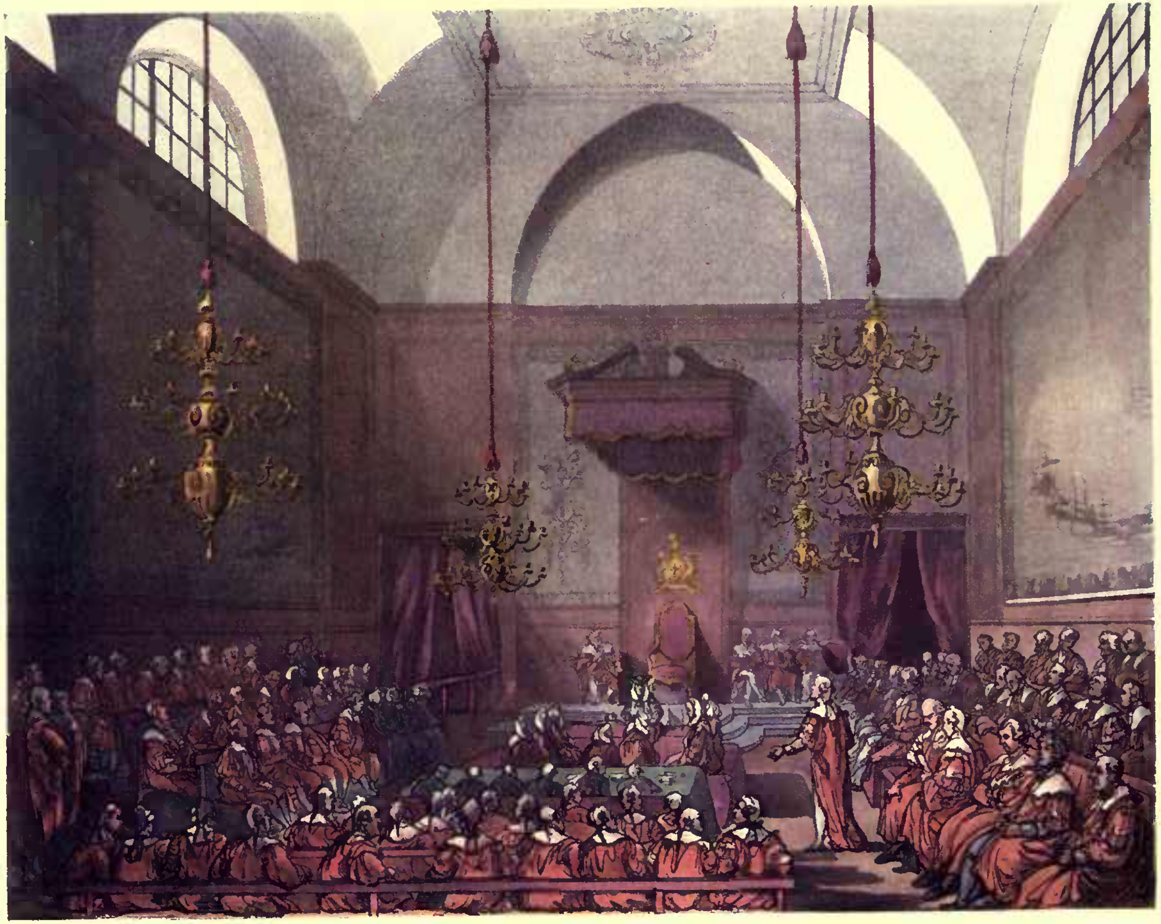
EGYPTIAN HALL.
MANSION HOUSE

EGYPTIAN HALL, MANSION-HOUSE

OF the many noble rooms which compose the interior of the Mansion-House, the Egyptian Hall, which is the length of the front, is the most deserving of notice and attention. When lighted up for civic entertainments, and crowded with visitors of the first consequence from both ends of the town, the display is grand, the effect impressive, and the *tout-ensemble* is calculated to excite in a stranger no inconsiderable degree of admiration and respect for an office attended with so much consideration. We are not unacquainted with the still higher dignity which an upright and conscientious discharge of its duties, confers upon the individual who is called upon to fill the chair; nor are we ignorant of the contempt and disgrace which in modern times have attached to the weak and imbecile character, who, in a moment of danger and difficulty, suffered the sceptre of the city to tremble in his hands.

The Mansion-House is erected upon the site of ground where the Stocks-market formerly stood, in the middle of which Sir Robert Vyner, who was lord mayor in 1675, in a fit of loyalty erected a statue, which he called Charles II. The fact is, that anxious to lose no time in displaying his attachment to that monarch, and having discovered at a foundery a statue of Sobieski, King of Poland, trampling upon a Turk, he was not deterred by any incongruity in the costume, but immediately set about converting the Turk into an Oliver Cromwell, and transformed the noble John Sobieski into the effeminate Charles II. trampling upon the usurper of his father's crown. Prior to the erection of this noble building, it was customary for the chief magistrate to hold his mayoralty at one of the halls belonging to the twelve principal companies; and the inconvenience continued long after it became obvious: it was, however, at length determined, for the honour of the city, and the more punctual and convenient discharge of the duties of the office, to build a house as the mansion of the lord mayor for the time being. This situation was considered as the most eligible, on account of its vicinity to the Royal Exchange, and from its being nearly in the center of the city.

Among a variety of plans, the present was selected; but it has the same misfortune which attends the principal buildings of this metropolis. It is so crowded on all sides with houses, that its beauties are lost; nor will the Mansion-House be seen to great advantage, till the heavy superstructure is removed, and a grand opening in the front made quite into Lothbury, so that it may form the end of a noble street; but this improvement is rather to be wished than expected. The ground on which the Mansion-House is erected abounding very much with springs, made it necessary to pile the foundations, and the damp has occasioned the dry rot, which at one period was a subject of considerable alarm. It is very substantially built of Portland stone, and has a portico of six lofty fluted columns of the Corinthian order in front, the same order being continued in pilasters both under the pediment and on each side. A handsome flight of steps, of considerable extent, leads up to the



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt et sculpt.

HOUSE of LORDS

portico; the balustrade of the stairs is continued along the front, and the columns support a large angular pediment, ornamented with a noble piece of sculpture in bass-relief, representing the dignity and opulence of the city of London. The whole expence of this building, including a sum of 3900*l.* paid for the purchase of houses to be pulled down, amounted to 42,638*l.* 18*s.* 8*d.*

HOUSE OF LORDS

AT the close of our short epitome of the legal history of this country, which we took occasion to introduce under the article "*House of Commons*," we promised to resume the subject when the present article presented itself in the order of publication. We had indeed omitted to enumerate the many beneficial laws which passed in the reign of Charles II. and the great strides which our constitution at that period made towards perfection. It was in this reign the doctrine and consequences of military tenures were abolished, and all their oppressive appendages removed from incumbering the estates of the subject; at the same time, the prerogatives of purveyance and preemption, and the writ *de hæretico comburendo*, were abolished. In this reign, too, were passed, the statute for holding annual Parliaments, the test and corporation acts, the statute of frauds and perjuries, the statute for distribution of intestates' estates, that of amendments and *jeofails*, and many wise and important acts for the improvement and protection of navigation and commerce. At this period the people seem not only to have enjoyed a considerable portion of real liberty, but to have possessed the means of protecting that liberty against the encroachments of prerogative. These circumstances enabled them, in the succeeding reign, to resist (as we have already shewn) the designs of James II. and to place the Prince of Orange upon the throne of these kingdoms. From this time the constitution has rather been rendered firm and stable by the confirmation of its principles, than amended by alterations. The bill of rights, the act of toleration, the act of settlement, and the conditions which were annexed to it, the union of England and Scotland; those acts by which the dispensing power of the crown is pronounced illegal, by which the septennial election of members of Parliament is established, by which certain officers are excluded the House of Commons or voting for members, which restrain the king's pardon from obstructing impeachments, which have imparted to all the lords an equal right to try their fellow peers, which regulate trials for high treason, which set some bounds to the civil list, by placing the administration of this revenue in the hands of persons accountable to Parliament; which have made the judges completely independent of the king, his ministers, and his successors; the union with Ireland: all these are proofs that the constitution of this country has nearly attained the height of human perfection, and that the utmost stretch of political speculation cannot justify a craving for more substantial benefits in a state of society.

But if to this catalogue we add the improvements which have taken place in the administration of the laws, and in the ameliorated state of public and private life, we shall be rather inclined to pity those who lose the opportunity of enjoying the practical benefits of such a condition, in vain and fruitless endeavours after theoretical perfection. It is since the period of the revolution in 1688, that the solemn recognition of the law of nations with respect to the rights of ambassadors, has been made, and a number of excrescences, that in process of time had sprung out of the practical part of the law, have been cut off: to which may be added, the protection of corporate rights by the improvement of writs of *mandamus*, and informations in nature of *quo warranto;* the regulations of trial by jury, and the act by which they are enabled to determine upon both law and fact; the admitting witnesses for prisoners upon oath; the farther restraints upon alienations of lands in mortmain; the extension of the benefit of clergy, by abolishing the pedantic criterion of reading; the new and effectual methods for the speedy recovery of rents; the improvements which have been made in ejectments for the trying of titles; the introduction and establishment of paper credit, by indorsements upon bills and notes, which have shewn the possibility, so long doubted, of assigning a *chose* in action; the translation of all legal proceedings into the English language; the erection of courts of conscience for recovering small debts, and the reformation of county courts; the great system of marine jurisprudence, of which the foundations have been laid, by clearly developing the principles on which policies of insurance are founded, and by happily applying those principles to particular cases; the amelioration and improvement of the laws relating to bankrupts, and which extend the sum for which a debtor may be arrested and held to bail; and, lastly, the liberality of sentiment which has taken possession of our courts of common law, and induced them to adopt (where facts can be clearly ascertained) the same principles of redress as prevail in our courts of equity, and by extending the remedial influence of the equitable writ of trespass on the case, according to its primitive institution by King Edward I. to almost every instance of injustice not remedied by any other process. This catalogue of improvements may be closed with the noblest palladium of our liberties, and the best assurance for their continuance, *the freedom of the press*, which is enjoyed and protected in this country as far as is consistent with the peace and wellbeing of society, and to an extent unknown in any other.

The House of Lords forms a constituent part of the constitution. It consists, first, of all the peers of the realm, by whatever title of nobility they may be distinguished, and from whatever source their dignity is derived, whether by descent, creation, or election (as since the unions with Scotland and Ireland): the number of these is indefinite. To them are joined the spiritual lords, consisting of two archbishops and twenty-four bishops; and at the dissolution of monasteries by Henry VIII. consisted likewise of twenty-six mitred abbots and two priors, a very considerable body, and in those times equal in number to the temporal nobility. But although, in the eye of the law, the lords spiritual are distinct from the lords temporal, and are so distinguished in most of our acts of Parliament, yet in practice they are usually blended together under the name of *the Lords;* they intermix in their votes, and the majority of lords so intermixed effectually determines every question proposed. It is among the privileges of the House of Lords, to be attended by the judges of the Court of King's Bench and Common Pleas, and such of the barons of the Exchequer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made serjeants at law; as likewise by the king's learned counsel, being serjeants, and by the masters of the Court of Chancery, for their advice in point of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings. The secretaries of state, with the attorney and solicitor general, were also used to attend the House of Peers, and have to this day their regular summons issued out at the beginning of every sessions, *ad tractandum et consilium impendendum*, though not *ad consentiendum;* but whenever of late years they have been members of the House of Commons, their attendance here hath fallen into disuse.

A distinction of rank and honours belongs to every well-governed state, and is more particularly necessary in a limited and free monarchy. It is the cheap remuneration of merit, and the appropriate reward of eminent services performed by great men; it is the noble mind's distinguishing allurement. In our mixed government, a class of nobility is an essential ingredient. It forms a barrier between the encroachments of prerogative and the vacillations of democracy. The nobility are the pillars reared from among the people, to support the dignity of the monarch, and to preserve that scale which rises in gradual progression from the cottage to the throne. It is this beautiful and contrasting proportion which gives stability to our constitution, and has made it the object of envy and admiration to surrounding nations. We cannot close this short epitome without saying a few words upon the sovereign power, although it does not immediately belong to this particular article, but as no other opportunity may offer in the subsequent divisions of this work, we shall embrace the present.

If any thing can add to our respect for an office so important and essential to the existence of our constitution, it would be derived from the example of private virtue and public firmness which have been exhibited, during the course of a long and portentous period, by our beloved monarch. But happy as we may feel ourselves in such an example at this arduous moment, our constitution would ill deserve the praises bestowed upon it by the wisest men of this and of every other country in Europe, if it depended rather upon the uncommon virtues of the prince, which an hereditary monarchy must render precarious, than upon attributes which are essential to the sovereign. It is in that political perfection which this constitution has attributed to the sacred office of a British sovereign, that consists the shining part of the most admirable form of government that ever was conceived by the mind of any legislator. It is a false and foolish notion, that the king is the servant of the public. He is the soul of the constitution, that which frees it from the tyranny of aristocracy, and the anarchy of democracy. The servants of the public are the ministers who surround him, through whom every act that is done must pass, who alone are responsible, amenable, and punishable. Nothing can pass from the sovereign to the subject but through the medium of accountable servants; and thus the essence of the constitution is never in danger, unless the madness or the folly of the people occasion it to be so. Contempt or aversion may indeed be nationally and universally felt towards one minister, and his successor may fully restore the dignity of the office, because it is dependent upon the conduct of the individual who fills it; but if the crown becomes contemptible in the eyes of the people, if the fine veil which the constitution has so wisely thrown round the person of the king, be rudely or wantonly torn away, then all the attributes of sovereignty sink for ever. That the king can do no wrong, that the king never dies, that the throne is never vacant, are ideas so interwoven with our earliest political feelings and prejudices, as to have become necessary to the existence of that constitution and of that liberty, which they are so admirably and wonderfully calculated to support and preserve. Indeed, the difficulty felt at the Revolution, by the greatest men of that age, in making the word *abdication* consistent with the sense of the constitution, plainly shewed their knowledge of the great importance of the kingly office, for the preservation of those liberties which they were met to establish.

To conclude, in the words of Sir W. Blackstone, "Herein consists the true excellence of the English constitution, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. Every branch of our civil polity supports and is supported, regulates and is regulated, by the rest: for the two houses naturally drawing in two directions of opposite interest, and the prerogative in another still different from them both, they mutually keep each other from exceeding their proper limits; while the whole is prevented from separation, and artificially connected together by the mixed nature of the crown, which is a part of the legislature and the sole executive magistrate. Like three distinct powers in mechanics, they jointly impel the machine of government in a direction different from what either acting by itself would have done, but at the same time in a direction partaking of each and formed out of all, a direction which constitutes the true line of the liberty and happiness of the community."

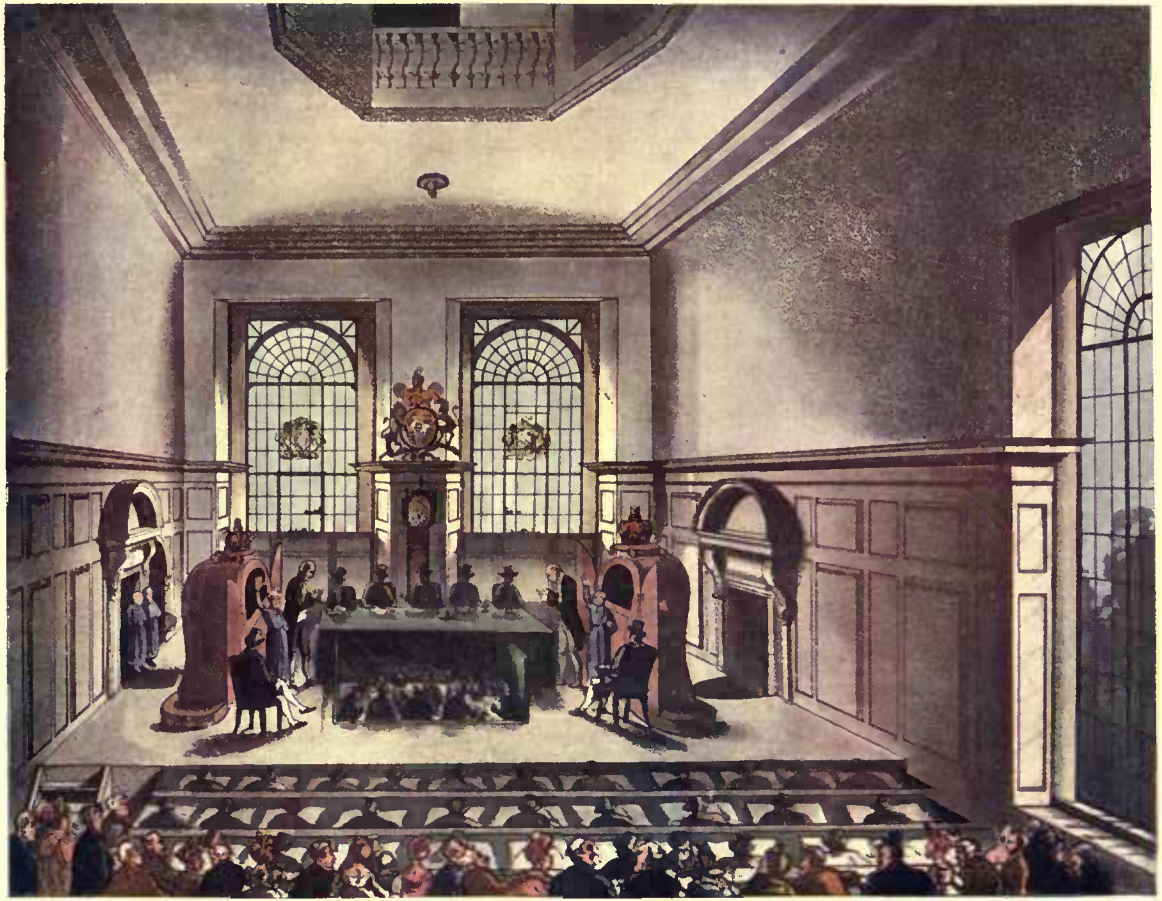
The building which is the present House of Lords was formerly the Court of Requests, and was fitted up for the present purpose upon the union of Great Britain with Ireland. The tapestry of the old House of Lords is used to decorate the present, and is set off with large frames of brown stained wood, which divide it into separate compartments. The north end of the court is converted into a lobby, by which the members of the House of Commons pass to the Upper House. The old canopy of state is placed at the upper end of the room, with the addition of the arms of the united kingdom, painted upon silk. On the right hand of the throne is a seat for the Prince of Wales, on the left is another for the next person of the royal family, and behind the throne are places for the young peers who have no votes in the house. When the king is present with the crown on his head, the lords sit uncovered, and the judges stand till his majesty gives them leave to sit. In the king's absence, the lords at their entrance do reverence to the throne. The lords give their votes either by proxy or by voting, in which latter case they begin with the puisne baron, and proceed in a regular series, every one answering *content* or *not content.* If the affirmatives and negatives are equal, it passes in the negative, the speaker not being allowed a voice, unless he be a peer of the realm. Each peer has a right to enter his protest, or the reasons of his dissent, if any vote passes the house contrary to his sentiments.

It would far exceed our limits to enter more into detail respecting the privileges which belong to the House of Lords.

In the possession of the Earl of Buchan, a few years since, was a copy from an ancient limning, formerly in the College of Arms, London, representing Edward I. sitting in Parliament. On a throne, at the upper end, sits the king, with his name and arms over his head. On his right, but on a lower seat, Alexander, King of Scots; and on his left, on a seat of the same height with this last, Llewellyn, Prince of Wales; both distinguished, like Edward himself, by their names and coats of arms over their heads. Beyond King Alexander, but on a lower seat, is placed the Archbishop of Canterbury; and beyond Llewellyn, on a lower seat likewise, the Archbishop of York; both of whom have their coats of arms placed over their heads. A woolsack lies cross-wise of the house, and on it, in front of the throne, are four persons sitting, evidently the chancellor, the two chief justices, and the chief baron of the Exchequer; or, in other words, the four chief judges of the four courts of law. Two other woolsacks are placed at right angles with the former; and on each of them sit four persons, no doubt intended for the other eight judges. Another woolsack is placed cross-wise of the house, and contains four other persons, sitting with their faces towards the throne, but uncovered; and who these are it is not easy to say. Behind these persons, and with their faces towards the throne, are two persons standing uncovered, with something like open papers in their hands, apparently clerks: and behind these clerks is a cross bench, on which sit seven persons covered, all with their faces towards the throne, in gowns or robes; but the right hand man appears to sit higher than the rest, and has on a black gown, and a chain round his neck. Each side of the room contains two benches, at right angles with the throne: those on the left have two bishops and five peers on one seat, and seven peers on the other; and at the upper end of the front bench of these two, and on a separate seat which stands forwarder, sits the prince, the son of King Edward, afterwards King Edward II. The mitred abbots are placed on the other or right side of the house, and on the bench nearest the wall; six of them on that bench, and thirteen more on a return which it makes at right angles, so as to come behind the above-mentioned bench, containing the seven persons: and on a bench on the right hand side of the house, reckoning from the throne, and just before the six mitred abbots, sit six bishops. Other attendants are also introduced, such as a nobleman uncovered, bearing a sword, who stands behind, near Prince Edward; and also an herald uncovered, near this last nobleman. Between Alexander, King of Scots, and the Archbishop of Canterbury, but farther back than either, and separated from the rest of the house by their seats, stands a man in a gown, but uncovered, with a roll of parchment in his hand. In a similar situation, between Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, and the Archbishop of York, stand two persons, covered it is true, but, apparently from their station, no members of the house, because they are divided from it by the seat, or covered bench, on one end of which that prince sits.

Excepting in the two instances of the cross benches, one with the four, and the other with the seven persons before mentioned, there is no difficulty in ascertaining the different ranks of the members or persons represented. Who the former might be, there is no circumstance to decide; but there seems some reason to think, that the seven persons were the lesser barons, or what answered to the present House of Commons; and that of them, the figure in black, with a chain round his neck, was their speaker, whose office, at that time, was apparently much the same as that of the foreman of a jury in our days, to collect their opinions individually, and to declare the result collectively, in the name of the whole body.

From the limning in Lord Buchan's possession, a print is given in Pinkerton's *Iconographia Scotica*, and from an examination of that print the above particulars have been obtained.



Pugin & Rowlandson, delt. et sculpt

LOTTERY DRAWING: COOPERS HALL.

LOTTERY

THE plate is a representation of Cooper's Hall, at which place the Lotteries have been drawn for many years. The arguments of the moralist and politician differ very widely upon the propriety of making the passion of the multitude for gaming subservient to the operations of finance: the subject admits of too much latitude upon one side, and may be defended with arguments of equal ingenuity, if not of equal importance, upon the other, for us to enter upon it within the limits necessarily prescribed to this work.

The first Lottery of which we have any account in these kingdoms, was drawn in the year 1569; it consisted of 40,000 lots, at ten shillings each: the prizes were pieces of plate; and the profits arising from it, were to go towards repairing the havens of this kingdom. It was drawn at the west door of St. Paul's cathedral, and began on the 11th January, 1569, and continued drawing, without intermission, day and night, until the 6th May following.—*Maitland*, vol. I. p. 257.

At this period there were only *three* lottery-offices in London. The proposals for this Lottery were published in the years 1567 and 1568: it was at first intended to have been drawn at the house of Mr. Derricke, her majesty's jeweller, but was afterwards drawn at St. Paul's. Dr. Rawlinson, in the year 1748, shewed to the Antiquarian Society, "A proposal for a very rich Lottery, general, without any blankes, contayning a great number of good prizes, as well of redy money as of plate, and certain sorts of merchandizes, having been valued and prised by the commandment of the queene's most excellent majestie's order, to the entent that such commodities as may chance to arise thereof after the charges borne, may be converted towards the reperations of the havens and strength of the realme, and towards such other public good workes. The number of lotts shall be foure hundred thousand, and no more; and every lot shall be the summe of tenne shillings sterling only, and no more: to be filled by the feast of St. Bartholomew. The shew of prises are to be seen in Cheapside, at the sign of the Queene's Arms, the house of Mr. Derricke, goldsmith, servant to the queene." Some other orders about it in 1567–8, printed by Hen. Bynneman. In the year 1612, King James, in especial favour for the present plantation of English colonies in Virginia, granted a Lottery to be held at the west end of St. Paul's, whereof one Thomas Sharplys, a tailor, of London, had the chief prize, which was 4000 crowns in fair plate.—Baker's *Chronicle*. See an account of the prizes, &c. of this Lottery, in Smith's *History of Virginia*. In the year 1630, a project was set on foot for the conveying water into London and Westminster, from within a mile and a half of Hodsdon, in Hertfordshire; for defraying the expences whereof, King Charles granted them a special licence to erect and publish a Lottery or Lotteries, "according," says this record, "to the course of other Lotteries heretofore used and practised;" which is the first mention of Lotteries either in the *Fœdera* or the statute books. In the reign of Queen Anne, it was thought necessary to suppress Lotteries as nuisances to the public.

Statute the 10th and 11th William III. c. 17. declares ALL

Lotteries *public nuisances*, and all *patents* for Lotteries *void* and *against law*. The State Lotteries are all managed under annual acts of Parliament passed for each: a penalty of 500*l.* is also imposed on every proprietor of a private Lottery, and 20*l.* on each adventurer.

Statute 9th Anne, c. 6. commands justices of peace to assist in suppressing private Lotteries.

Statute 10th Anne, c. 26. imposes the like penalty of 500*l.* on persons keeping offices for illegal insurances on marriages, &c. under various pretexts.

Statute 5th George I. c. 9. puts the sale of chances on the footing of private Lotteries, and imposes a penalty of 100*l.* (above all other penalties), recoverable by the persons possessed of the ticket, the chance of which was sold, and the offender may also be committed to the county gaol for a year.

Statute 8th George I. c. 2. imposes a penalty of 500*l.* on persons keeping offices for the disposal of houses, land, advowsons, &c. by lottery, and adventurers to forfeit double the sum contributed.

This statute, and those of 10th and 11th William III. and 9th Anne, above-mentioned, are explained and rendered more effectual by statute 12th George II. c. 28. which imposes 10*l.* penalty on justices neglecting their duty under those acts.

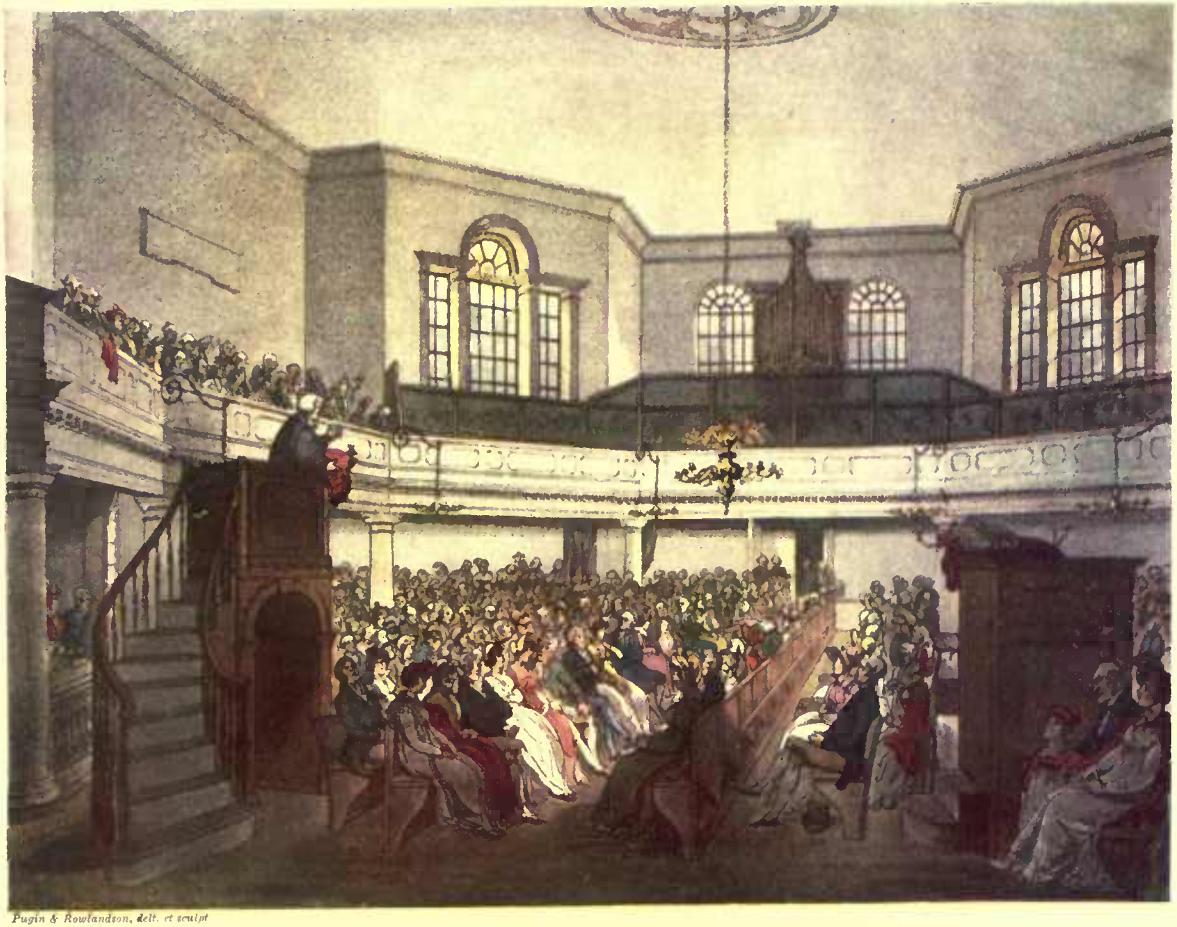
Statutes 9th George I. c. 19. and 6th George II. c. 35. impose a penalty of 200*l.* and a year's imprisonment on persons selling tickets in, or publishing schemes of, any foreign Lottery. Ireland is excepted under statute 22d George III. c. 47.—Statute 29th George II. c. 7. provides that offences against the English acts against private Lotteries, though committed in Ireland, shall be liable to all the penalties imposed as if they were committed in England.

By statute 22d George III. c. 47. all lottery-office-keepers must take out a licence from the stamp-office, for which they pay 50*l.* Offices to be open only from eight in the morning to eight in the evening (except the Saturday evening preceding the drawing). The sale of chances (and shares of tickets not their own), prohibited under 50*l.* penalty. Shares to be stamped.

By statute 27th George III. c. 1. all unlicensed lottery-office-keepers, and all persons, directly or indirectly, as principals or servants, selling chances, or insuring or causing any person to insure for or against the drawing of any ticket in any State Lottery, shall be deemed rogues and vagabonds, within the strict letter of statute 17th George II. c. 5. and other statutes relating to vagabonds.

MAGDALEN HOUSE

THE Magdalen House, for the reception of penitent female prostitutes, is situated on the east side of the road leading from Blackfriars-bridge to the obelisk in St. George's-fields: it consists of four brick buildings, which inclose a quadrangle, with a basin in the center. The chapel is an octangular edifice, erected at one of the back corners; and to give the inclosed court uniformity, a building with a similar front is placed at the opposite corner. This benevolent institution was projected in the year 1758, by Mr. Robert Dingley: it was at



Pugin & Rowlandson, delt. et sculpt

MAGDALEN CHAPEL.

first kept in a large house, formerly the London Infirmary, in Prescot-street, Goodman's-fields, and was called the Magdalen Hospital. The utility of this charity was so conspicuous, and so well supported, that the views of the benefactors extended to the building an edifice more enlarged and convenient for the purpose: in consequence of which, the spot on which the present edifice stands was made choice of; and on the 28th of July, in the year 1769, the Earl of Hertford, president, with the vice-president and governors, laid the first stone at the altar of the chapel, under which was placed a brass plate, with the following inscription:

> On the 28th of July,
> In the year of our Lord
> MDCCLXIX,
> And in the ninth year of the reign of
> his most sacred Majesty
> George III.
> King of Great Britain,
> Patronized by his Royal Consort,
> Queen Charlotte,
> This Hospital,
> For the reception of
> Penitent Prostitutes,
> Supported by voluntary contributions,
> Was began to be erected,
> And the first stone laid by
> Francis, Earl of Hertford,
> Knight of the most noble order of
> the garter, lord chamberlain of
> his majesty's household, and one
> of his most honourable privy council,
> the president.
>
> Joel Johnson, architect.

During the period that it has subsisted, more than two-thirds of the women who have been admitted, have been reconciled to their friends, or placed in honest employments or reputable services. Of this number, some undoubtedly have relapsed into their former errors; but many, who left the house at their own request, have since behaved well; and several of those discharged for improper behaviour, have, to the certain knowledge of the committee, never returned to evil courses. A very considerable number are since married, and are at this moment respectable members of society. Could their names and situations be disclosed (which, for the most obvious reasons, would be highly improper), the very great utility of this charity would appear in the strongest light.

A probationary ward has been instituted for the young women on their first admission; a separation of those of different descriptions and qualifications has been established; and apartments have been fitted up in the lodge of the Hospital for the residence of the chaplain, that he may with the greater facility devote his attention to the instruction of the women in the most satisfactory manner.

Each class is entrusted to its particular assistant, and the whole is under the inspection of the matron. This separation (useful on many accounts) is peculiarly so to a numerous class of women, who are much to be pitied, and to whom this charity has been very beneficial, viz. young women who have been seduced from their friends under promises of marriage, and have been deserted by their seducers: they have never been in public prostitution, but fly to the Magdalen to avoid it: their relations, in the first moments of resentment, refuse to receive, protect, or acknowledge them; they are abandoned by the world, without character, without friends, without money, without resource, and wretched indeed is their situation! To such especially, this house of refuge opens wide its doors; and instead of being driven by despair to lay violent hands on themselves, and to superadd the crime of self-murder to that guilt which is the cause of their distress, or of being forced, by the strong calls of hunger, into prostitution, they find a safe and quiet retreat in this abode of peace and reflection. To rescue from the threatening horrors of prostitution such victims of the base and ungenerous, whose ruin has frequently been more owing to their unsuspecting innocence, than to any other cause; to restore them to virtue and industry, after one false step, and to reconcile their friends, are considerations of the greatest magnitude. The committee generally give such young women the preference, because they are almost certain of the best consequences; for it scarcely ever happens but their relations relent, when, by taking shelter in this house, they have given so strong a proof of their determination to quit a vicious way of life. The method of proceeding for the admission of women into this Hospital is as follows: The first Thursday in every month is an admission-day, when sometimes from twenty to thirty petitioners appear, who, without any recommendation whatever, on applying at the door to the clerk, receive a printed form of petition, gratis, which is properly filled up: each petition is numbered, and a corresponding number is given to the petitioner herself. They are called in singly before the board, and such questions are put to them as may enable the committee to judge of the sincerity of their professions, and to ascertain the truth of their assertions. If a parent, relation, or friend, has accompanied them (which, though not necessary, is very desirable, and is very frequently the case), these are also called in separately, and examined, with a view to confirm and strengthen, if true, or to disprove, if false, the account given by the women themselves. The committee take particular pains to select for admission the most deserving, as it often happens that there are but few vacancies: in the next place, they endeavour, to the utmost of their ability, to assist such other petitioners as appear thoroughly resolved to mend their lives. Many are reconciled to their friends, by the interposition of the committee, even without being admitted into the house; and others are supported until a vacancy takes place, that they may not be compelled by want to return to their evil ways.

The treatment of the women is of the gentlest kind: they are instructed in the principles of religion, in reading, and in several kinds of work, and the various branches of household employment, to qualify them for service or other situations, wherein they may honestly earn their bread. The chaplain attends to them daily, to promote and encourage their good resolutions, and to exhort them to religion and virtue. The sacrament is administered on the great festivals, and at other stated times, when many of the young women who have been some time in the house, and who, after having themselves expressed their wish to be instructed in this duty, have been considered by the chaplain as sufficiently informed and prepared for it, receive it with the most serious attention.

The time they remain in the house varies according to circumstances. The greatest pains are taken to find out their relations and friends, to bring about a reconciliation with them; and if they be people of character, to put them under their protection: if, however, the young women are destitute of such friends, they are retained in the house till an opportunity offers of placing them in a respectable service, or of procuring them the means of obtaining an honest livelihood. *No young woman, who has behaved well during her stay in the house, is discharged unprovided for.*

Four general courts are holden in every year, viz. on the last Wednesday in January, April, July, and October, when every governor may be present.

At the general court in April, the committee and all officers, except the president, are elected.

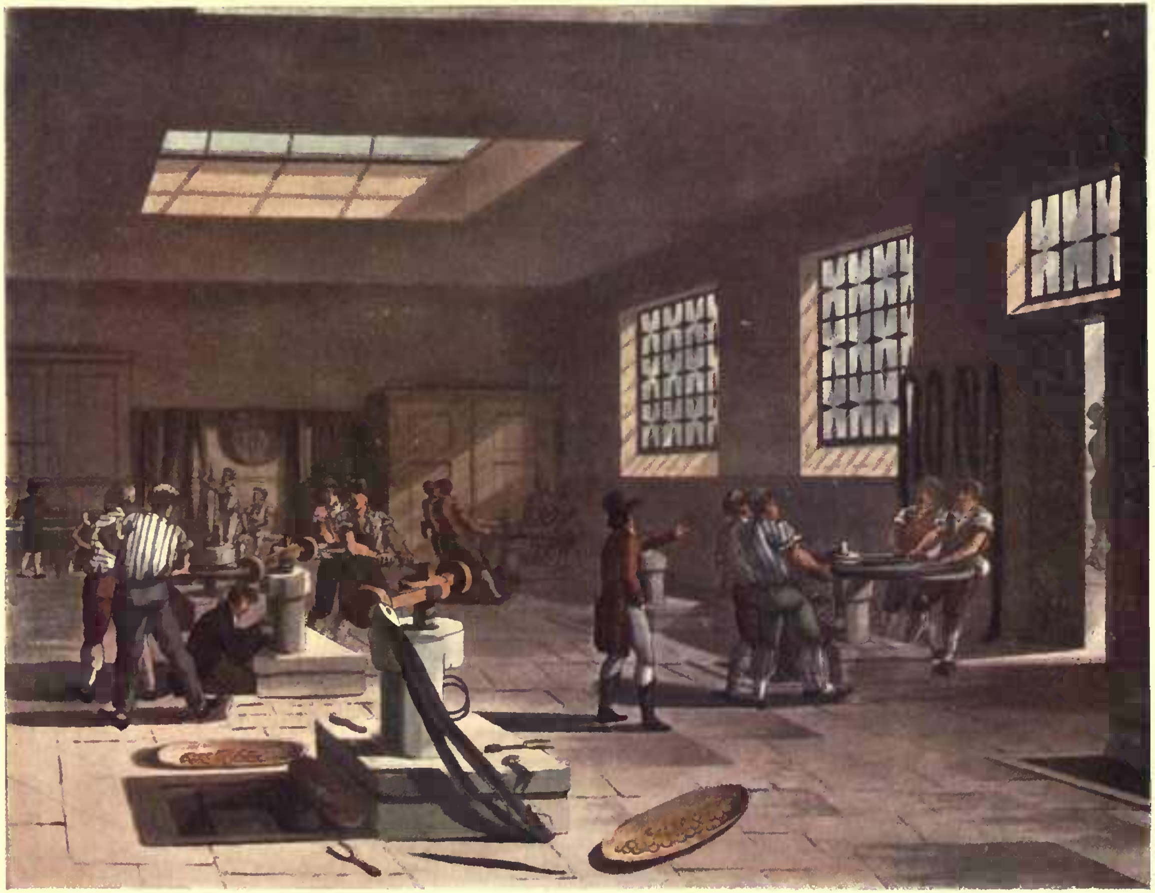
The committee, consisting of thirty-two governors, meet at the Hospital every Thursday, at twelve o'clock precisely, except on the first Thursday of every month, when they meet at eleven.

A subscription of twenty guineas, or more, at one time, or of five guineas per annum for five successive years, is a qualification for a governor for life; and an annual subscription of five guineas for a governor for one year: but smaller subscriptions or donations are thankfully received.

It is impossible to contemplate the wretched situation of those miserable females who support themselves by prostitution, without reverting to the causes which have placed many of them in that dreadful predicament: the tear of pity and the consolations of religion, are due to these objects more frequently than the fastidious virtue of their own sex is willing to bestow them. Seduced from a state of virtue, they are no longer the comfort of affectionate parents; born and educated for brighter scenes, till, deceived by falsehood and villany, they see their error when too late to recede: abandoned by their former friends and protectors, they are thrown upon the world; deserted too by their seducers, pointed at by the finger of scorn, and driven from the society of virtue and innocence, they are obliged to herd with the profligate, the brutal, and the licentious. If there is a note of pity in the human heart, surely it must vibrate with every feeling that leads to the rescue of such objects from a life of ignominy and shame; and we hail, with no common degree of satisfaction, an institution calculated to restore the miserable victims of seduction to a life of virtue and industrious comfort.

THE MINT

IN the earliest period of our history, so late indeed as the Norman conquest, the coinage of money was entrusted to the superintendence of the clergy, and mints were established in certain monasteries, under the natural presumption, that such places were best secured from fraud, dishonesty, and peculation. Edward I. however, thought it would secure it more from these inconveniences if the coinage were executed at the Tower; and he accordingly ordered a mint to be erected there, of thirty furnaces. At a subsequent period, however, he permitted mints to be established in many other parts of the kingdom, such as Canterbury, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Bristol, &c. &c. From this period the privilege of coining was frequently sold to some nobleman, bishop, or corporation, as the pleasure or necessities of the prince inclined or compelled him to grant it. The result of this conduct very naturally produced inconveniencies to the public, which continued till the early part of



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt. et sculpt.

THE MINT.

Queen Elizabeth's reign, who endeavoured to rectify them by confining the mint to the Tower.

The Tower of London has ever since been appropriated for that purpose, except during the civil wars, when Charles I. erected mints at Oxford, York, and Newark; and afterwards during the reign of William III. who having called in all the base and clipt money, was (for the sake of expedition) obliged to erect mints at Bristol, Exeter, York, and Winchester.

The annexed plate is a very animated representation of the last of many operations necessary to manufacture coin from the metal, namely the stamping or putting the impression.

It would far exceed the limits of this publication, either to exhibit the history of money from the earlier ages, when gold and silver were exchanged by weight, without stamp or impression, for an equivalent in cattle, corn, and other necessaries; or the no less interesting account of the impressions which were first employed to denote the weight and value of coin, to distinguish the currency of different nations, to perpetuate the names of the monarchs by whom they were governed, or the æras of their respective reigns. The coining of money has ever been ranked among the most unquestionable and important of royal prerogatives, and of which every monarch has been most jealous. Although the coin of all the world has been greatly diminished from its original value, sometimes from mistaken policy, and at others from the necessities and avarice of monarchs, yet the currency of these realms has supported an uniform superiority over that of other nations; and the anxiety which has been shewn at different periods, to restore the standard of our coin, whenever it has been necessary, forms a brilliant point in the reigns of some of our best monarchs.

The charter of our Mint was granted in the reign of Edward I. and has been confirmed by subsequent sovereigns. The officers of the Mint are the warden, master, comptroller, and their clerks, together with an officer called king's clerk; two assay-masters, the one denominated king's assayer, and the other master's assayer; three engravers, a weigher, and teller; and the company of moneyers, &c. All these act, in their respective capacities, as check officers and manufacturers of the coin; and the business of this very important office has been carried on with such continued exactness, fidelity, and integrity, that no error in the fineness or weight of the currency has occurred (as appears upon the records of the various trials of the coin, which have from time to time taken place), for many ages.

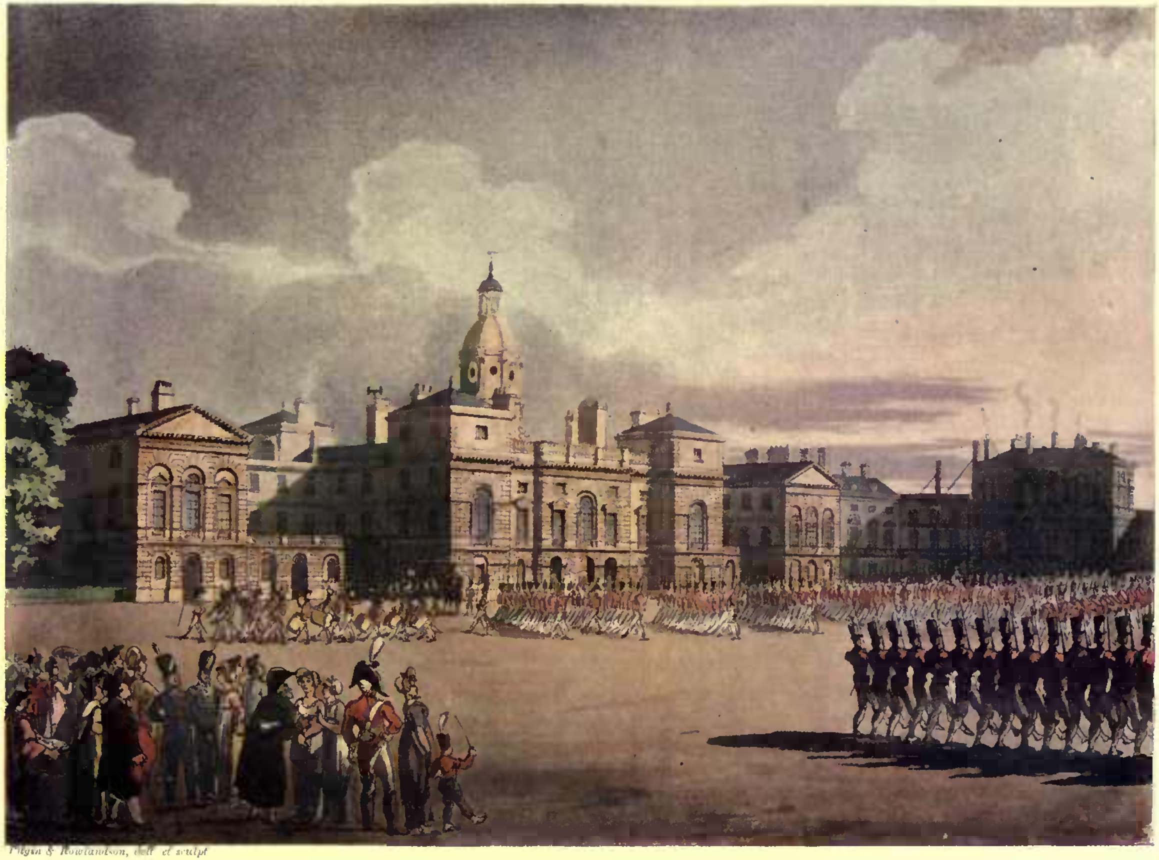
A short account of the manner of making money, may be amusing to our readers. Originally, the impression was given upon the pieces by the stroke of a hammer upon a punch bearing the impression of what was to be struck upon the coin: this was called hammered money. This tedious and incorrect mode of coining, was, in 1663, superseded by the method now used, called mill and screw; and the money thus coined is called milled money, of which the following is a concise description:—The gold, or silver, is first melted into bars, of a width and length suitable to the coin to be manufactured; these bars, after being assayed by the king's assayer, and found to be standard as to fineness, are passed between two cylinders, to reduce them as thin as may be necessary; the circular pieces for coin are then cut out by an engine, and after undergoing various other processes, to adjust, soften, clean them, &c. the pieces are lastly brought into the press-room (of which the plate is an exact representation), where they are placed between two dies, the one having the effigy of his majesty, and the other the arms of the united kingdom; and by means of a lever loaded with lead at each end, fixed to a strong screw center, and forced down by the strength of four men, the impression is marked upon each side of the coin at one blow; and this is so expeditiously done, that sixty, seventy, or eighty pieces can be struck in one minute. The plate represents various presses, together with the attitudes of the men, as well of those who pull the lever, as of the person in the action of putting the pieces between the dies, to receive the impression. After the money is thus coined, it is again assayed and weighed by the check officers, and delivered to the owners of the bullion.

A new Mint is now erecting on the spot where the Victualling-office formerly stood, upon Little Tower-hill: the scale of it is magnificent; and when we state that the buildings are under the direction of one of the most eminent of our architects, Robert Smirke, jun. Esq.; and the machinery and steam-engines, by which the operative parts are to be performed, under that of John Rennie, Esq. engineer, and Messrs. Boulton and Co. assisted by the practical knowledge of the officers of his majesty's Mint, the public may expect, in a short time, that this country will possess a Mint unrivalled in point of elegance, utility, and perfection, and upon a scale equal to any coinages that a great, wealthy, and commercial nation may require: this perfection in workmanship, added to the uniform and unrivalled integrity as to fineness and weight, for which the coin of these realms has ever been distinguished, will render the royal Mint of the united kingdom the most perfect establishment of its kind in the world.

MOUNTING GUARD, ST. JAMES'S PARK

THE noble edifice of the Horse Guards stands upon part of the site of the vast palace of Whitehall, occupying that spot which was formerly the Tilt-yard; a place set apart by Henry VIII. and afterwards by Elizabeth, for military exercises.

A building appropriated to the same purposes was in existence during the reign of Charles II. who, soon after his restoration, raised a body of men that was stationed here, and on whom the appellation of Horse Guards was conferred. The building has rather the appearance of strength than elegance, and has been found fault with for the too great uniformity of its parts. In the center is an arched way into St. James's Park, the building over which has a pediment, with the king's arms in bass-relief; but this being the passage by which his majesty passes to and from the House of Peers, it should certainly have been constructed in a more noble and lofty style: the wings are plain, and have each of them a projecting front, with ornamented windows on the principal story, and a plain one in the side. The building is said to have cost more than 30,000*l.* That part of St. James's Park immediately behind the building, is the parade, and is so called from being the place where the reliefs for the different guards about the palace are every morning paraded and inspected, a



Pugin & Rowlandson, delt et sculpt

MOUNTING GUARD,
St JAMES'S PARK.

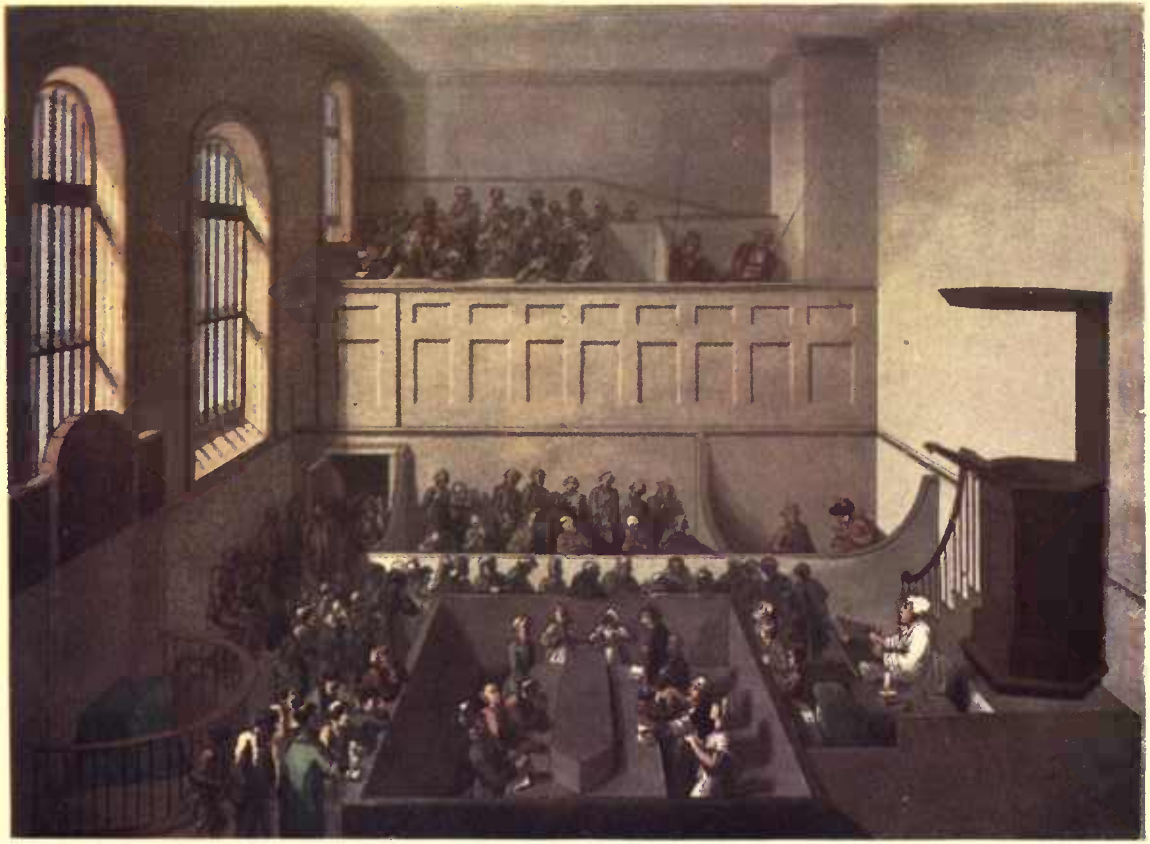
representation of which is given in the plate. In the reign of James II. when it was customary to mount guard at St. James's and Whitehall, a most ungracious message was sent by that monarch to the Prince of Orange, inviting him to take his lodgings at the latter: the prince accepted the invitation, but hinted that the king must previously quit. The old hero, Lord Craven, was on duty at the time when the Dutch guards were marching through the park to relieve, by order of their master. From a point of honour, Lord Craven had determined not to quit his post, and was preparing to maintain it; but receiving the command of his sovereign at this instant, he reluctantly withdrew his men, and marched away with silent dignity. Antiquarians inform us, that in Henry VIII.'s time the park was a wild, wet field; but when that prince built St. James's Palace, he inclosed this field, laid it out in walks, collected the waters, and gave to the new-inclosed ground and the palace, the name of St. James. It was very much improved by Charles II. who added to it several fields, planted it with rows of lime trees, laid out the Mall (which is a vista nearly half a mile in length), and formed the canal, which is 100 feet broad and 2,800 feet long. Succeeding kings allowed to the people the privilege of walking in it; and King William III. in 1699, granted the neighbouring inhabitants a passage into it from Spring-gardens.

The building of the Horse Guards began in the year 1751, and was very expeditiously completed. It is certainly a neat and compact piece of architecture, and appears to the greatest advantage when viewed at a distance, from the park. It contains a variety of offices necessary for the transaction of business relating to the army; all of them very convenient, and many of them extremely elegant.

NEWGATE

IT is the opinion of our best antiquarians, that *Newgate* obtained its name from being erected several hundred years after the four original gates of the city. It was built in the reign of Henry I. Others, who maintain a contrary opinion, assert that it was only repaired at this period, and that it was anciently denominated Chamberlain-gate. It appears, from ancient records, that it was called Newgate, and was a common gaol for felons taken in the city of London, or the county of Middlesex, as early as the year 1218; and that, so late as the year 1457, Newgate, and not the Tower, was the prison for the nobility and great officers of state.

In the year 1780, Newgate was almost burnt down by the rioters, and the felons confined in the strongest cells were released: such was the violence of the fire, that the great iron bars of the windows were burnt through, and the adjacent stones vitrified. This circumstance afforded the opportunity of carrying into effect a plan which had been long projected, of separating the felons from the debtors. Mr. Howard, in his *State of Prisons*, 4to ed. 213, seems to think, that notwithstanding some of the defects of the old prison are removed, yet the present one is by no means free from errors; and that, without great care, the prisoners are yet liable to the fatal fever which is the result of one of these errors. The exterior presents a uniform front to the west, of rustic work, and consists of two wings, the keeper's



Pugin & Rowlandson, delt. et sculpt

NEWGATE
CHAPEL

house forming the center. The north side is appropriated to debtors, men and women: the men's court is forty-nine feet six inches by thirty-one feet six inches; the women's about the same length, but not more than half the width. These courts are surrounded by wards, rising three stories above the pavement: the men's rooms are about twenty-three feet by fifteen feet, and are usually occupied by from fifteen to twenty persons: the debtors' side has generally about 250 inhabitants. The allowance to debtors is ten ounces of bread and one pound and a half of potatoes per day: the debtors in the poor and women's sides have an allowance of eight stone of beef weekly sent them by the sheriffs. The south side is appropriated to felons and persons confined for offences against government.

The plate represents the chapel of the prison during divine service on the Sunday preceding the execution of criminals. Upon this occasion, a suitable sermon, called *the condemned sermon*, is preached by the ordinary; during which a coffin is placed on a table within an inclosure, called the Dock; and round this coffin are prisoners condemned to die.

The mode of executing criminals at Tyburn had long been complained of, as tending rather to introduce depravity, by a want of solemnity, than to operate as a preventive to crimes, by exhibiting an awful example of punishment. To remedy this evil, both the place and manner of execution were changed: a temporary scaffold was constructed, to be placed in the open space before the debtors' door of Newgate, having a movable platform for the criminals to stand on, which, by means of a lever and rollers, falls from under them. The whole of this building is hung with black; and the regulations which are observed on these mournful occasions, are calculated to produce that impression on the minds of the spectators which is the true end of all punishments.

A solemn exhortation was formerly given to the prisoners appointed to die at Tyburn, on their way from Newgate. Mr. Robert Dow, merchant tailor, who died in 1612, left 26s. 8d. yearly, for ever, that the bellman should deliver from the wall to the unhappy criminals, as they went by in the cart, a most pious and awful admonition, and also another in the prison of Newgate on the night before they suffered. They were as follow:

Admonition to the prisoners in Newgate on the night before execution.

You prisoners that are within,
Who, for wickedness and sin,

After many mercies shewn you, are now appointed to die to-morrow in the forenoon, give ear, and understand, that to-morrow morning the greatest bell of St. Sepulchre's shall toll for you, in form and manner of a passing bell, as used to be tolled for those who are at the point of death, to the end that all godly people hearing that bell, and knowing it is for your going to your deaths, may be stirred up heartily to pray to God to bestow his grace and mercy upon you whilst you live. I beseech you, for Jesus Christ's sake, to keep this night in watching and prayer, to the salvation of your own souls, while there is yet time and place for mercy, as knowing to-morrow you must appear before the judgment-seat of your Creator, there to give an account of all things done in this life, and to suffer eternal torments for your sin committed against him, unless, upon your hearty and unfeigned repentance, you find mercy through the merits, death, and passion of our only mediator and advocate, Jesus Christ, who now sits at the right hand of God to make intercession for as many of you as penitently return to him.

Admonition to the condemned criminals as they are passing by St. Sepulchre's church wall to execution.

All good people, pray heartily to God for these poor sinners, who are now going to their death, for whom this great bell doth toll. You that are condemned to die, repent with lamentable tears; ask mercy of the Lord for the salvation of your own souls, through the merits, death, and passion of Jesus Christ, who now sits at the right hand of God to make intercession for as many of you as penitently return unto him.

Lord have mercy upon you,
Christ have mercy upon you,
Lord have mercy upon you,
Christ have mercy upon you.

OLD BAILEY

MANY of our antiquarians are of opinion that the term *Old Bailey* is a corruption of *Bale-hill*, an eminence on which stood the *Bale*, or bailiff's house, wherein was formerly held a court for the trial of malefactors; and this opinion seems to be confirmed by such a court having been kept here for many centuries, in which there is a place of security where the sheriffs keep their prisoners during the session, which still retains the name of the *Bale-dock*.

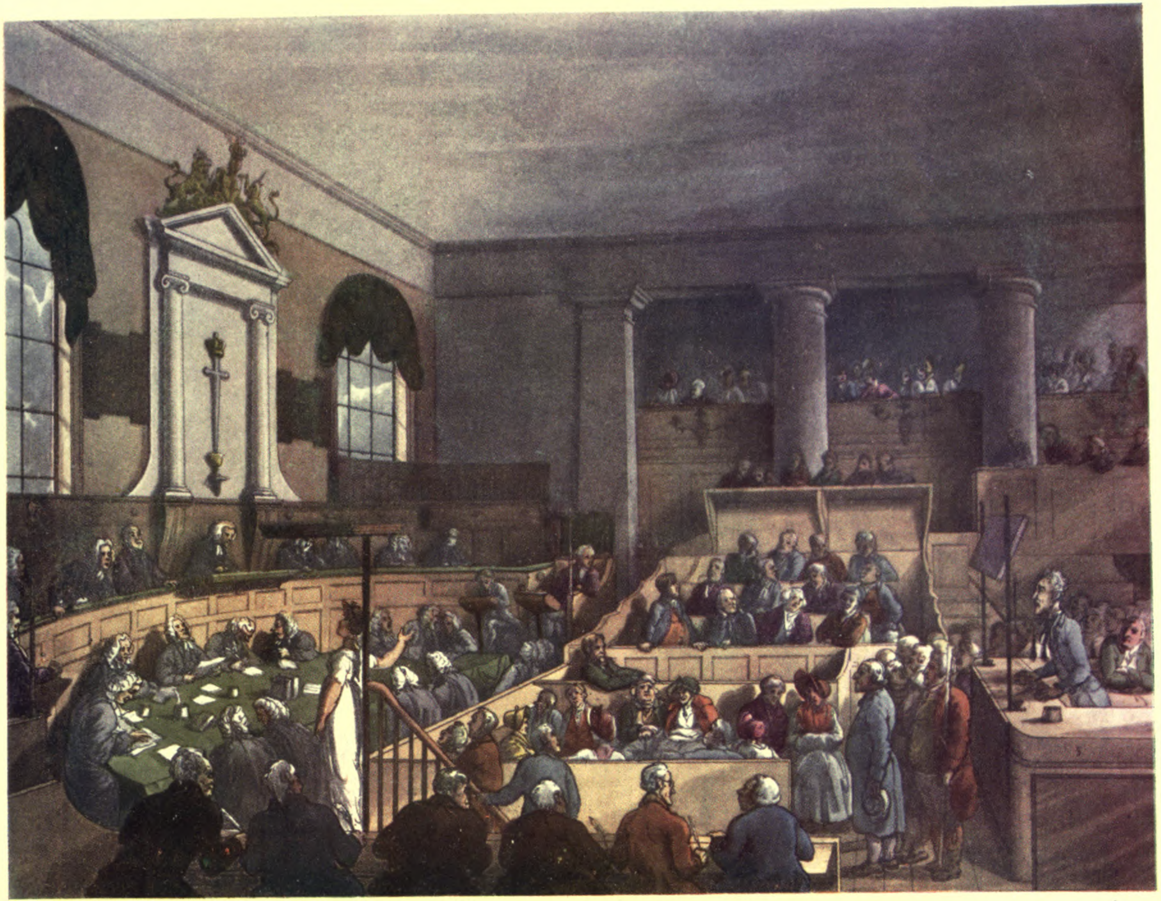
Contiguous to Newgate is Justice Hall, commonly called the Sessions-House: it was formerly a plain brick building, but is now rebuilt entirely of stone, and is brought much forwarder than the old one, and is parallel with the street. There is a flight of steps which leads to a gallery on each side of the court, for the accommodation of spectators. It is a very elegant and commodious room. The entrance into the area is narrow, to prevent the sudden irruption of the mob: above it is a figure of Justice. Every precaution has been taken to render it airy, and to prevent the effect of the effluvia arising from that dreadful disorder, the gaol fever.

The havoc it made in May 1750, was a melancholy admonition to those interested in every court of justice. The prisoners are brought to this court from Newgate by a passage that closely connects the two buildings; and there is a convenient place under the Sessions-House, in front, for detaining the prisoners till they are called upon their trials: there are also rooms for the grand and petty juries, with other accommodations.

A court is held eight times in the year, by a commission of Oyer and Terminer, for the trial of prisoners for crimes committed within the city of London and county of Middlesex: the judges are, the lord mayor, the aldermen who have passed the chair, and the recorder, who, on such occasions, are attended by both the sheriffs, and by one or more of the judges. The offences committed in the city are tried by a jury of citizens; and those committed in the county, by a jury of housekeepers in the county. The crimes tried in this court are high and petty treason, murder, felony, forgery, petty larceny, burglary, &c.

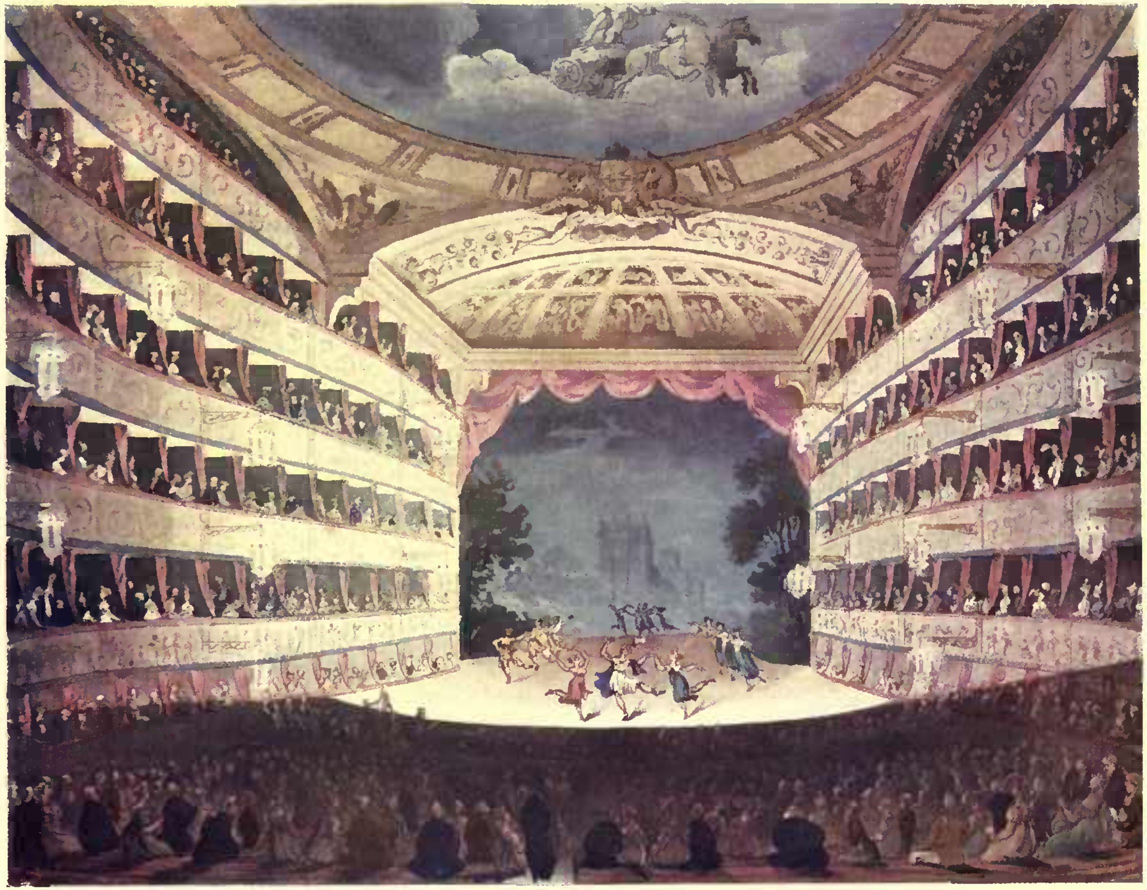
At the back of the Sessions-House is a convenient passage, covered over, for the judge and counsellors that attend the court.

The plate represents the court employed in the examination of a witness, who appears to have just received the usual admonition upon these occasions, of "*Hold up your head, young woman, and look at his lordship.*"



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt. et sculpt.

OLD BAILEY



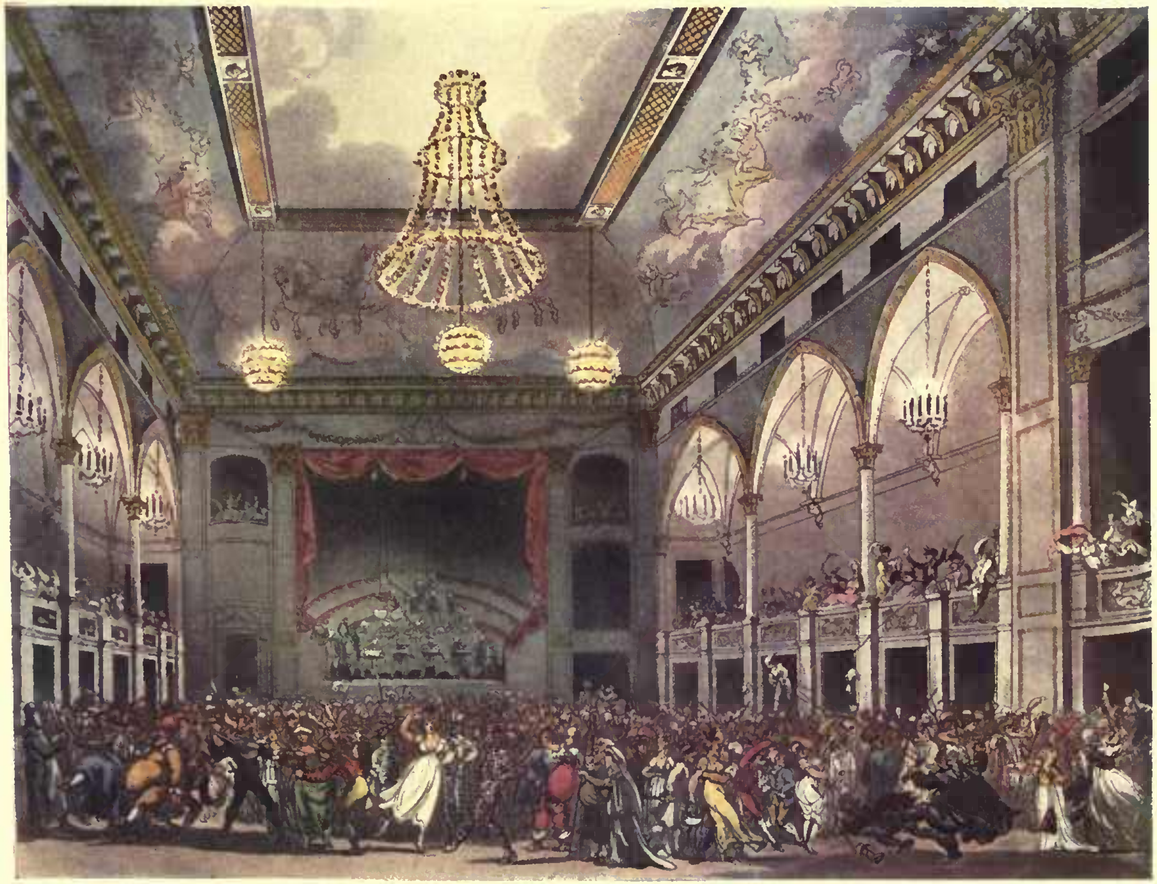
Rowlandson & Pugin, delt. et sculpt.

OPERA HOUSE.

OPERA-HOUSE

THE Opera-House is a noble pile of building, situated near the bottom of the Haymarket, on the west side. It was originally built by Sir John Vanburgh, during the years 1704–5, and was first opened in the month of April 1705, for the performance of Italian operas, under the title of the Queen's Theatre. The precarious encouragement which was afforded to musical spectacles of a nature entirely novel, by the attendance of the public, rendered it necessary, a few years afterwards, to raise a fund for the more permanent establishment of the Italian opera in this kingdom. In consequence of a determination to this effect, the sum of 50,000*l.* was raised by subscription in the year 1720, towards which his Majesty George I. subscribed 1000*l.*

The plan was well conceived and digested; the first vocal performers were brought from Italy, and the best composers from the Continent were encouraged to employ their talents in this undertaking. Handel and Bononcini, with many others, were by this means introduced to the public. The opera flourished for some time, and a taste for classical performances was by degrees encouraged and disseminated. The superiority of the Italians, both as vocal and instrumental performers, was at this period so indisputable, that they were exclusively employed, and the riches of the country enabled the directors to procure the best performers that the Continent could supply. But music seems to be approaching very fast towards the fate that has been experienced by most of the arts, which advance by slow degrees to a certain point of perfection, which it is equally difficult to preserve as to acquire. Modern music was first methodized by Guido Aretine, and received but little improvement for many centuries afterwards. At the time that Italy produced her best painters, some of her best musicians flourished. In England we began much later: it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that we had any music that could possibly compete with the Italian. From this period our advances were again very slow for many years, and although Gibbons did something, Purcel was the first who improved *air*, which is the great support of modern music. Purcel was a great master, and his genius, though disguised by the false ornaments of the age in which he lived, was of the first order. He has perhaps laboured too much to imitate the words, rather than to express the thought of the sentence; and his frequent repetitions of the same word, and his almost infinite divisions, are not to be defended: but when the imitation of his defects, rather than his beauties, began to operate upon the general taste, Handel most seasonably made his appearance, to rescue us from a return to barbarity. He introduced and established a new species: though frequently defective in expression and elegance, he certainly brought *air* to its utmost perfection. But notwithstanding the great style in which his performances were exhibited a few years since, it is certain that we are getting very fast into as frivolous and trifling a taste for music as ever existed. Voltaire observes, *La musique aujord hui n'est plus que l'art d'executer des choses difficiles.* It is true Voltaire almost assumed a merit from perpetually expressing a contempt as well as ignorance of music; but there is much truth in the observation:



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt et sculpt

PANTHEON MASQUERADE.

for the art of playing upon musical instruments is degenerating very fast into the art of playing tricks upon them. In order to bend what is crooked so as to make it strait, we bend it as much the other way: and if it should fortunately become fashionable to retreat from ornament in music as much as in drapery, we may hope to hear music plain and unadorned, and the air of the moderns united with the substantial harmony of our predecessors. The English performers have certainly rivalled with great success both the Italians and Germans in accuracy and execution; but, with the exception of Mrs. Billington, the vocal performers of this country are very inferior to the Italians.

The scenery of the Opera-House is very good, and does great honour to the talents of the artists employed. The stage-room is not sufficient for the magnificent ballets which the prevailing taste of the day requires. The audience part of the house is in a superior taste and style.

THE PANTHEON

THIS building is situated on the south side of Oxford-street. It was opened on the 28th April, 1772, as a place of evening entertainment for the nobility and gentry. It was a most superb and beautiful structure previous to its destruction by fire in the year 1792, and was fitted up in a style of great splendour and magnificence. Imagination cannot well exceed the elegance and grandeur of the apartments, the boldness of the paintings, or the effect produced by the disposition of the lights, which were reflected from gilt vases. Below the dome were a number of statues, representing most of the heathen gods and goddesses supposed to be in the ancient Pantheon at Rome, from which it derived its name. To these were added three beautiful statues of white porphyry, representing the king, and queen, and Britannia. The whole building was composed of a suite of fourteen rooms, each affording a striking specimen of the splendour and profusion of the times. On the 14th January, 1792, this beautiful structure was destroyed by a fire, that broke out in one of the new buildings, which had been added in order to make it large enough for the performance of operas. Before any engines reached the spot, the fire had got to such a height, that all attempts to save the building were in vain. The flames, owing to the scenery, oil, paint, and other combustible matter in the house, were tremendous, and so rapid in their progress, that not a single article could be saved. Fortunately, the height of the walls prevented the conflagration from spreading to the adjoining buildings.

Since the Pantheon was rebuilt, it has been principally used for exhibitions, and occasionally for masquerades, of which the plate is a very spirited representation. It is composed, as these scenes usually are, of a motley crowd of peers and pickpockets, honourables and dishonourables, Jew brokers and demireps, quidnuncs and quack doctors. These entertainments are said not to accord with the English character; and we should have been inclined to impute this want of congeniality to a fund of good sense, which renders our countrymen insensible to such entertainments, if we were not daily witnesses of their pursuing amusements less rational and infinitely more frivolous.

PHILANTHROPIC SOCIETY

THE object and design of punishment is, to deter men from the commission of crimes by the operation of fear; the object of education is, to prevent the necessity of punishment by detaching them from vice by means of the hopes and rewards of religion. Whatever may have been the vain theories of philosophy, no man can have lived in the world without observing, that something more is necessary to enable us upon all occasions to act properly, than the mere "beauty of virtue." No man can be really insensible to this important truth, that there are some occasions in the course of life, where probity is not sufficiently strong to resist certain temptations, and wherein the mind is debased, unless it is elevated by religious habits, and a firm belief of immortality. If this reasoning be true in the abstract, how strongly does it apply to a class of objects, who had long been the outcasts of society, and the disgrace of the nation; who, inheriting from their parents habits of vice and principles of irreligion, were thrown upon the world without character, without friends, the miserable objects, not of pity, but of contempt and abhorrence. A society formed for the purpose of rescuing children of this description from infamy and the gallows, by extending to them the benefits of a religious education, and affording the opportunity of a decent and proper means of gaining their daily bread by honest employment, seems at the first blush to be a society of such a description as all ranks, from the prince to the peasant, might not only applaud, but support; and it would appear, that the mode in which the society pursues the objects for which it was instituted, require only to be thoroughly understood by the public, to entitle it to that assistance which its meritorious nature entitles it.

This society was instituted in the year 1788, and incorporated in 1806, by the name and style of *The President, Vice-President, Treasurer, and Members of the Philanthropic Society.*

The object of the society, as stated by themselves, is to give a good education, with the means of acquiring an honest livelihood, to some, who must otherwise set out in life under circumstances of peculiar disadvantage, and who, if not protected and instructed by this charity, would probably fall into bad hands, and become the wretched pupils of vice and profligacy.

It is notorious, that among the numbers annually condemned in this country to death or transportation, many may be found who have been tutored and disciplined from their infancy in vicious practices, and who were actually engaged, at a very early age, in the commission of crimes. Nor is this matter of surprise: children are much fitter instruments for experienced villany to work with, than accomplices of riper age; being in a less degree objects of suspicion, they have less vigilance to encounter on the part of those who are to be defrauded or attacked: they may be employed without being admitted into the secrets of the gang; they can therefore make no material discoveries in the event of detection, and in case of success, they will be contented with an inconsiderable portion of the plunder.

The children taken under the care of this society are either the offspring of convicted felons, or such as have themselves been engaged in criminal practices. The former have probably been contaminated by the sentiments and example of the parent before his conviction, and are orphans under circumstances which operate in general to exclude them from respectable situations: they may indeed be sent to the parish workhouse, but there too the obloquy of their birth must follow them; and it is almost of course, that they should herd with the idle and the profligate, by whom the fate of their parents will be considered a recommendation. The children of the second class, viz. those who have themselves been criminal, have also strong claims on the compassion of the charitable. It frequently happens, that very serious offences are committed at an age which does not allow of their being followed by legal punishment. In this situation are such children as have been carried before a magistrate for theft or fraudulent practices, and have been discharged, not in consequence of any doubt respecting their guilt, but either for want of complete legal evidence, or the unwillingness of the injured party to bring them to trial; or children who, after being tried and convicted, have been recommended to the care of the society, as fitter subjects for the discipline of education, than for the vengeance of the law. There are some within its walls, upon whom (though sentenced to transportation or death) the law must have taken its course, if the institution had not, by preparing an asylum for the offender when pardoned, afforded to the crown an opportunity of exercising mercy, without endangering the public safety.

Objects are admitted by the committee, at its weekly meetings, held at twelve o'clock on every Friday, at the St. Paul's coffee-house, in St. Paul's churchyard. They are seldom taken younger than eight or nine, or older than twelve: no female has of late been received beyond that age. All letters, introducing or recommending an object, addressed to the committee, or their secretary, by subscribers to the charity, or other persons of respectability, are duly acknowledged, and the proceedings thereon communicated in the answer. No particular introduction or interest is necessary to induce the committee to take any case, which may be brought before it, into consideration, the want of other countenance and protection constituting, from the very principles of this institution, a strong claim to its attention; nor can any recommendation be allowed to operate in procuring admission, except as far as they contain material information concerning the case to which they relate: considered in this light, the recommendations of judges and magistrates in favour of children who have come within their notice as criminals, receive particular attention.

The society has, for the reception of the children taken under its care, an house at Bermondsey, called *The Reform*, and a large manufactory in St. George's-fields, for the boys; and a spacious building, adjoining to the manufactory, for the girls.

All boys admitted on account of their own delinquency, are sent in the first instance to the *Reform*. This very important addition to the society's establishment was made in 1802, partly in consequence of the inconvenience and impropriety of placing such as were criminal amongst those who had not been received as guilty of any crime, and partly from the necessity of keeping boys of the former description under a stricter superintendence, and in more close confinement, than was consistent with the regulations of a manufactory. The system in the *Reform* is framed with a view to the amendment of the moral character by instruction.

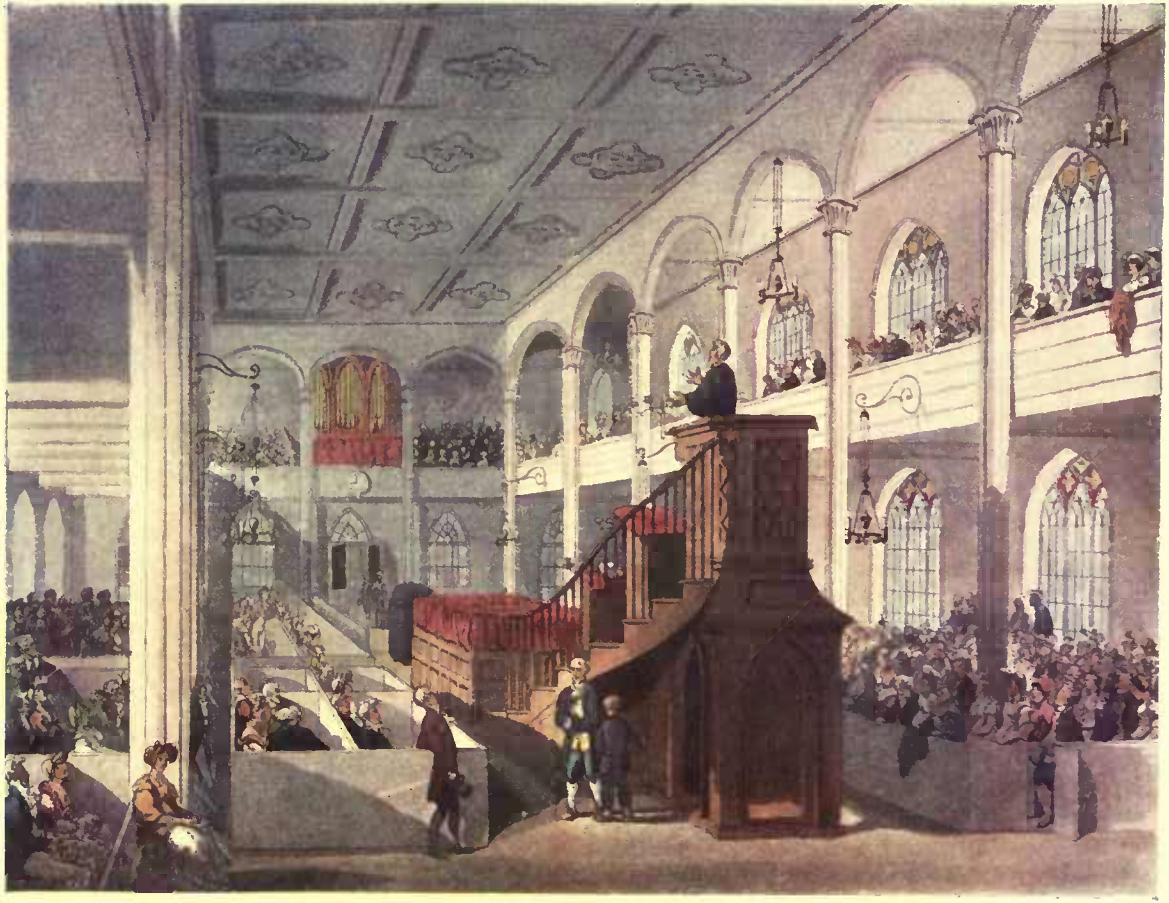
The sons of convicts, not having themselves been criminal, are sent at once to the manufactory, which is very extensive; containing, besides accommodation for lodging one hundred boys, workshops for carrying on the following trades, viz. printing, copper-plate printing, shoe-making, tailor's work, rope-making, and twine-spinning.

The girls are placed in a building contiguous to the manufactory; but all intercourse between them and the boys is effectually prevented by a wall of considerable height. They are in general the offspring of convicts, such only being received, in consequence of their own misconduct, as may have been guilty of a single act of dishonesty, or have misbehaved at a very early age. The girls are brought up for menial servants: they make their own clothing, and shirts for the boys, and wash and mend for the manufactory; besides which, their earnings in plain work have for the last three years been considerable. When of proper age they are placed out, at low wages, in respectable families, and receive rewards for good behaviour at the end of the first and third years of their service.

The general management and direction of the society's affairs are entrusted to the committee, at whose meetings every member of the institution may attend, and give his opinion upon any point under consideration, but without voting. The proceedings of the committee are, however, subject to the reversion and controul of general meetings of the members, which are held on the first Friday in March, June, September, and December, and oftener if specially summoned.

In order to give the children in the manufactory and female school the advantage of attending the public worship of the church without inconvenience, the society has been engaged for some years (as has frequently been mentioned in its publications) in the erection of a chapel within its own walls. Difficulties have been encountered, which could not have been overcome without the aid and protection of the legislature. But these obstacles being at length surmounted, the chapel was regularly opened in the month of November 1806, for the celebration of divine worship, according to the rites and ceremonies of the church of England, under the authority of the bishop of the diocese, and with the express sanction of Parliament; a sanction granted in consequence of the strong sense entertained by the different branches of the legislature, of the public utility of this institution, and of its peculiar claims upon that ground to the privilege of having a chapel annexed to it, with ministers to officiate therein, of its own appointment and nomination. The print gives a representation of the interior of the chapel, which, from the time of its being opened, has been numerously and most respectably attended.

The claims of a society, which substitutes prevention or reformation for punishment, to the favourable attention of the public, require but little proof, in a country in which wealth and luxury have produced their usual consequences, the increase of crimes; and in which the severity of the law cuts off annually a long list of offenders, without being able to lessen the frequency of offence. It is an institution, in the support of which the best



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt. & sculpt.

PHILANTHROPIC SOCIETY.
THE CHAPEL.

impulses of the heart will be found to act in concurrence with the suggestions of the understanding, and the dictates of the soundest policy. The situation of those who, as yet innocent of their father's crimes stand as it were upon the threshold of vice, without the means of retreat, demands the exertion of benevolence with an urgency which it seems difficult to resist. The execution of an old offender removes a single criminal from society; the reformation of a young one protects the public, not only from the crimes which he would otherwise have committed, but from the mischief which might result from all those whom his bad example, or pernicious instructions, would have corrupted. Nor is this all: execution only removes the criminal; reformation makes him useful to his country. The effect of this institution is, to convert persons, who, by their birth, or in their infancy, are become outlaws, as it were, and rebels to society, into good subjects and industrious members of the community; an effect of which, considered even in a pecuniary point of view, it is not easy to compute the advantage.

The number of children within the society's walls at present are, 122 boys (of whom 14 are in the Reform, and 108 in the manufactory,) and 49 girls. There are also eight apprentices serving masters out of the manufactory, but still under the protection of the society.

The Philanthropic Society is supported by voluntary contributions, and consists of an unlimited number of members, out of whom a president, twelve vice-presidents, a treasurer, and a committee of twenty-four persons, are elected for the management and direction of the affairs of the institution. The general controul of the affairs of the corporation is in the members at large, assembled in a general court. A subscription of twenty guineas, paid at one time, or within one year, constitutes a member for life. A subscription of the yearly sum of one guinea or more, constitutes the subscriber a member during such time as he shall continue to pay the same. Persons may also become members by the appointment of a general court.

The number of children maintained in the year 1807 was 191, including those whose apprenticeships expired and those placed out at service; and the number remaining on the 31st December, 1807, was 119 boys and 49 girls, in the whole 168; which last number was, on the 25th March, 1808, increased by new admissions to 174.

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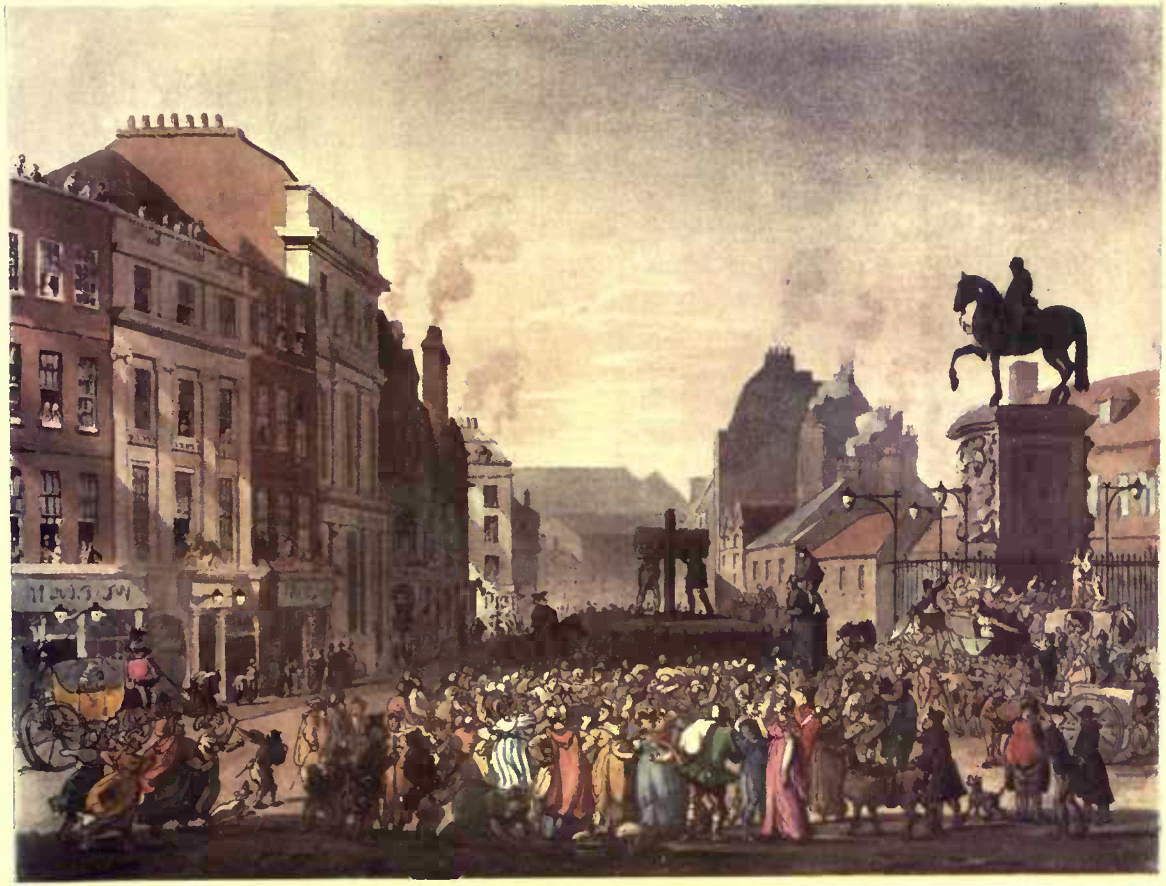
PILLORY

THE plate is a representation of the Pillory, as it appears at Charing-Cross, a place very frequently chosen for this kind of punishment, probably on account of its being so public a situation, and having so extensive an area for the spectators, who never fail to be drawn together by such an exhibition. An offender thus exposed to public view, is afterwards considered infamous. The degree of this punishment depends very much upon the nature of the crime. There are certain offences which are supposed to irritate the feelings of the lower class more than others, in which cases the punishment of the Pillory becomes very serious. If a sense of ingenuous shame were excited by this mode of public exposure, we should recommend the extending it to those fashionable crimes which so often fall under the cognizance of our courts of justice, and destroy all the ties that hold society together; and we cannot help thinking, that the experiment might be tried with success, in order to suppress such offences as are ridiculously imputed to an excess of sensibility.

The word Pillory is derived from the French *pilleur*, that is, *depeculator*, or *pelori*, from the Greek Πυλη, *janua*, a door, and Οραω, *video*, I see; because a delinquent in the pillory is seen as it were with his head through a door. By the statute of the Pillory, 51st Henry III. chap. 6. it is appointed for bakers, forestallers, and those who use false weights, perjury, forgery, &c.—3 Inst. 219. *Lords of leets* are to have a pillory and tumbrel, or it will be *cause of forfeiture of the leet;* and a *vill* may be bound by prescription to provide a pillory, &c.—2 Hawk. *P. C. c.* 11. *sec.* 5.



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt et sculpt.

PILLORY,
CHARING CROSS

POST-OFFICE

IN the earlier stages of society, and previous to the establishment of any regular system for the conveyance of important intelligence, either of a private or public nature, we have reason to suppose that occasional carriers were employed for that purpose, as convenience suggested, or as necessity required. It is probable, that horses were at these remote periods seized for this use; or, what is still more probable, that men were tutored to run from station to station, as is now the practice among the eastern nations, where the couriers run their allotted distances with astonishing celerity. Even pigeons have been taught to fly with letters attached to them. The Emperor Trajan appears to have been the first who directed horses to be kept for this purpose only. Louis XI. King of France, established the first regular conveyance of this description upon the Continent, in the year 1464, for the more speedy information, which he thought it necessary to possess, concerning the state of his extensive dominions. Surrounding nations soon adopted his regulations, and each suited them to its own peculiar circumstances. Respecting the antiquity of this establishment in England, it is not so easy to determine. There are some traces of it so early as the time of Edward III. but the earliest mention of chief post-master for England, is in Camden's *Annals*, under date 1581. James I. erected the first Post-Office for the conveyance of letters to and from foreign parts, which he placed under the controul of one Matthew de l'Equester. This office was afterwards claimed by Lord Stanhope; but, in 1632, was confirmed and continued to Wm. Frizel and Thomas Witherings, by Charles I.; and in 1635, all private inland posts were forbidden.

This branch of the revenue seems to have been but little attended to before the usurpation, till which time the posts were confined to a few of the principal roads. The outline of the more regular and extensive plan which was afterwards adopted, seems to have originated with Mr. Edmund Prideaux, attorney-general to the commonwealth, who was appointed post-master by an ordinance of the two Houses of Parliament, in the execution of which office he first established a weekly conveyance of letters to all parts of the nation.

In 1644, the revenue supposed to have been collected was about 5000*l.* In 1653–4, the Parliament farmed this revenue to a Mr. Manly for 10,000*l.* (which Mr. Pennant has, by some mistake, called a hundred thousand pounds), and after deducting the charges of post-masters, &c. produced a benefit to the public of about 7000*l.*

In 1656, a new and regular Post-Office was established, by the authority of the Protector and his Parliament, upon nearly the same plan as at present; and in 1660, an act of Parliament passed, re-establishing the regulations of 1656, with some improvements, and authorizing the king to establish a Post-Office in London, and Post-Houses in such parts of the country as were unprovided, both on the post and by-roads. From this period to the present many other acts of the legislature have been passed, to improve and extend this system, which is at present one of the best organized engines of finance existing under any government.

It has been gradually brought, from the first exertions of individuals, replete with abuse, irregularity, and uncertainty, to its present state of perfection; and is now, not only a source of great profit to government, but commerce derives from its establishment a facility of correspondence, which could not be effected by means less powerful or less regular.

Among the other improvements, that which deserves our particular notice in this work, is the alteration suggested and carried into effect, by Mr. John Palmer, of Bath. Some general ideas of the reform which has since taken place, were first suggested to Mr. Pitt in the autumn of 1784, and in the beginning of the following year a plan was given in to him. After having maturely considered it, the minister determined that it should undergo a trial. This original plan, which, though it has been greatly improved, contains all the principles of the undertaking, and in its present state of perfection is a curious and interesting memoir, of which we regret that our limits will not permit us to give the outlines. Those who have travelled in mail-coaches, which were a principle feature in Mr. Palmer's plan, need not be informed of their rapid motions, nor of the constant, uninterrupted assiduity of the coachmen, the guards, the officers at the different post-towns, and even of the ostlers, to expedite their progress; and foreigners, who have no such arrangements for the convenience of commerce or travelling in their own countries, must form a very favourable idea of the commercial character of the British nation, from this establishment. The regular influx and reflux of money to and from the capital, and the natural effect produced by these diurnal rotations upon the circulation of the kingdom, is a source of new and curious speculation, and is not perhaps one of the least deserving among the many which claim the attention of the philosopher.

The General Post-Office was originally situated in Cloak-lane, near Dowgate; whence it was afterwards removed to the Black Swan, in Bishopsgate-street; and finally to the mansion of Sir Robert Vyner, in Lombard-street, of whom a curious anecdote is related in the *Spectator*, No. 462. The convivial Sir Robert Vyner, during his mayoralty in 1675, was honoured with the presence of his sovereign, Charles II. His majesty was for retiring after staying the usual time, but Sir Robert, filled with good liquor and loyalty, laid hold of the king, and swore, "Sir, you shall take t'other bottle." The good-natured monarch looked kindly at him over the shoulder, and, with a smile and graceful air, repeated this line of the old song,

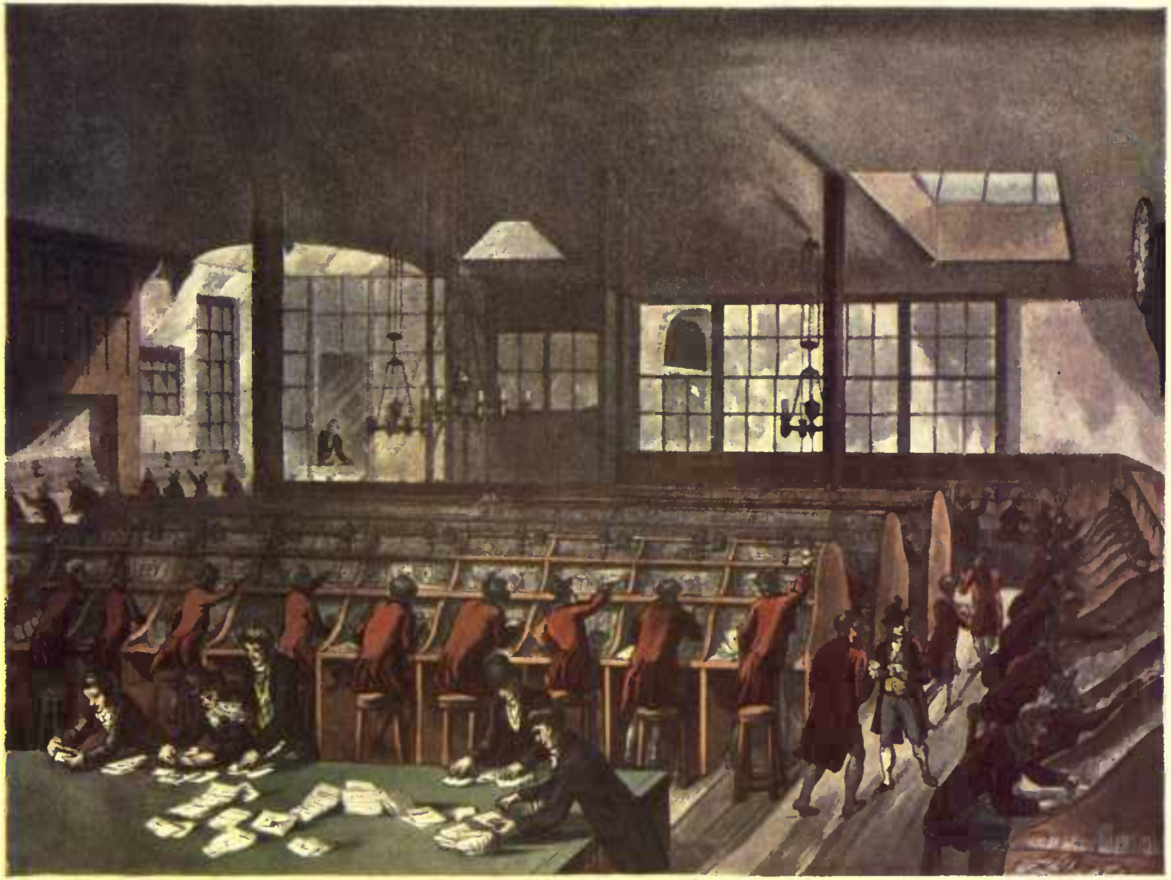
> "He that's drunk is as great as a king,"

and immediately turned back, and complied with his landlord.

But important as the concerns of this establishment are to a commercial nation like our own, the edifice can merit no praise as a building. It stands behind Lombard-street, from which a passage, under an arched gateway on the south side, leads to the offices. It is a national reproach, when edifices of this kind, which, from our great mercantile concerns, afford occasion for a display of public architecture, and ornament to the metropolis, are lost to those purposes.

The print is an exact representation of the office whence the letters are delivered in the morning, and where the newspapers are sorted in the evening.

This office is under the controul of two noblemen, holding a situation termed *joint post-masters general.* The present post-



Pugin & Rowlandson, delt et sculpt

THE POST OFFICE.

masters are the Earl of Chichester and the Earl of Sandwich, from whom all appointments in the office must proceed, and whose sanction is necessary to all orders and regulations. The duty of the secretary is, to manage, under the post-masters general, the correspondence by post throughout the country, to deliver his opinion upon all regulations submitted for the consideration of the board, and its orders are issued through this channel.

The duty of the inland department is under the management of a superintending president, in conjunction with three presidents and three vice-presidents: it commences at six o'clock, and is usually finished at ten or eleven in the morning. The letters, after they are taken from the bags, are carefully counted, and the amount of postage taken, to check the account of the deputy post-masters in the country; they then pass through the hands of persons by whom they are all individually examined as to the correctness of the charges made by the post-masters from whence they come; and, after being stamped, are assorted to the different districts, as they are divided among the letter-carriers. Previous to their being issued from this office into the hands of the letter-carriers, the amount of each parcel of letters is twice counted up. Every letter-carrier is responsible for the account taken of those letters that belong immediately to his division. The payment of the postage is made by them into the receiver-general's office three times a week, where a check for each day's amount is kept against them. The utmost care and diligence are exerted, in order to prevent the public and the revenue from suffering from the numerous hands through which letters must necessarily pass before they reach the owners: the apparently precarious mode of collecting these levies, is regulated by plans that insure the revenue from frauds, that might otherwise so easily exist. The circumstance of this great engine to the commercial world, commencing its operations at so early an hour, enables the public to receive their correspondence before the business of the day is begun; an advantage which exists only in London.

Attendance is given in the evening by a different set of clerks, who relieve those employed in the morning. The office hours are from half past four till eight o'clock, during which interval the letters which have been put into the office in the course of the day, and those brought from the various receiving houses, are stamped, assorted, and arranged for the different divisions of the office, each named from the mail that is dispatched from thence. The duty of assorting the letters to these divisions is done by the junior clerks, who are instructed, at first entering, in the knowledge of the situation of all the post-towns, and their local relation to one another. After sorting the letters, the proper rate of postage is marked on them; each individual letter being at the same time examined, to detect double and treble letters, and to prevent those for and from members of Parliament from being charged. This part of the duty is transacted by the seniors in the office, and each of whom can, on an average, charge in this manner from *sixty* to *seventy* letters in a *minute.* When the letters have been thus properly charged, they are deposited in boxes, labelled by the names of the several post-towns. The person who undertakes this branch of the duty must necessarily be acquainted with the various villages and hamlets, names and residences of the members of Parliament in the neighbourhood of the towns in his respective division; and which is done with a degree of accuracy that a stranger would scarcely believe possible to attain by any thing less than an absolute local knowledge of them. After seven o'clock, the amount of letters for each town is then told up, and sent with them to the offices in the country; an account of it is reserved at the General Office, as a check on the post-masters in their remittances. The bags of letters, after being tied and sealed, are arranged and divided into the several branches from the main-road, and given to the guards. This is always completed by eight o'clock, summer and winter.

From 170,000 to 200,000 letters weekly pass through this department only. On one occasion the amount of postage to the *town of Manchester only* was upwards of 300*l.* The immense number of letters that are nightly dispatched from hence, excite sensations of astonishment in the mind of a bystander, that can only be exceeded by the rapidity and accuracy with which every part of the duty is managed. All the parts of this wonderful piece of mechanism are upon the same expeditious and accurate plan, as at the main source. Since the adoption of the system recommended by Mr. Palmer, the letters are carried by coaches distinguished by the name of *mail-coaches*, as already stated: these are provided with a guard, well armed, and forwarded at the rate of eight miles an hour, including all stoppages. The time of working the mail is reckoned from the arrival of the coach, and as five minutes are considered sufficient time for changing horses, it is the duty of the guards to report those deputies who neglect to have every thing in readiness for the due forwarding of it.

Government contracts with the coach-owners merely for carrying the mail; the profits arising from carrying passengers and parcels belong to the coach-keeper. The rapidity of this mode of conveyance is unequalled in almost any other country: one cannot easily conceive so complete a combination of various interests to one purpose!

Mail-coaches start every night from London to

Dover,
Poole,
Portsmouth,
Chichester,
Exeter,
Taunton,
Gloucester,
Bristol,
Shrewsbury,
Worcester,
Liverpool,
Chester,
Manchester,
Leeds,
Glasgow,
York,
Norwich,
Ipswich,
Edinburgh,
Cambridge,
Rye, and
Brighton.

Exclusive of several other coaches that start at earlier hours, and receive their respective mails on the road; such as Lincoln, Weymouth, &c. &c.

The inland charges of letters are regulated by the following rates:

A single letter going any distance within

	s. d.		*s. d.*		*s. d.*		*s. d.*		*s. d.*
15 miles	0 4	50 miles	0 6	120 miles	0 8	230 miles	0 10	400 miles	1 0
30	0 5	80	0 7	170	0 9	300	0 11	500	1 1

And so on in proportion, 1*d.* for every additional hundred miles.

The principal officers in the General Post-Office are,

The secretary and principal resident surveyor, Francis Freeling, Esq.
Superintending president of the inland office, Daniel Stow, Esq.
Comptroller of the foreign office, Arthur Stanhope, Esq.
Receiver-general, T. Mortlock, Esq. *Accomptant-general*, Hon. John Spencer.
Superintendent of mail-coaches, T. Hasker, Esq. *Solicitor*, A. Parkin, Esq.
Architect, J. T. Groves, Esq.
District surveyors, G. Hodgson, S. Woodcock, Chr. Saverland, George Western, J. B. Bartlett, Leonard Aust, and A. Scott.
Inspector of dead and mis-sent letters, R. P. Barlow, Esq.
Accomptant of the by and cross-road letter-office, J. Wyldbore, Esq.
Superintendent of the ship-letter-office, — Bullen, Esq.

The number of clerks in the offices, are 62—messengers, 25—inland letter-carriers, 130—supernumeraries to ditto, 30—foreign letter-carriers, 28.

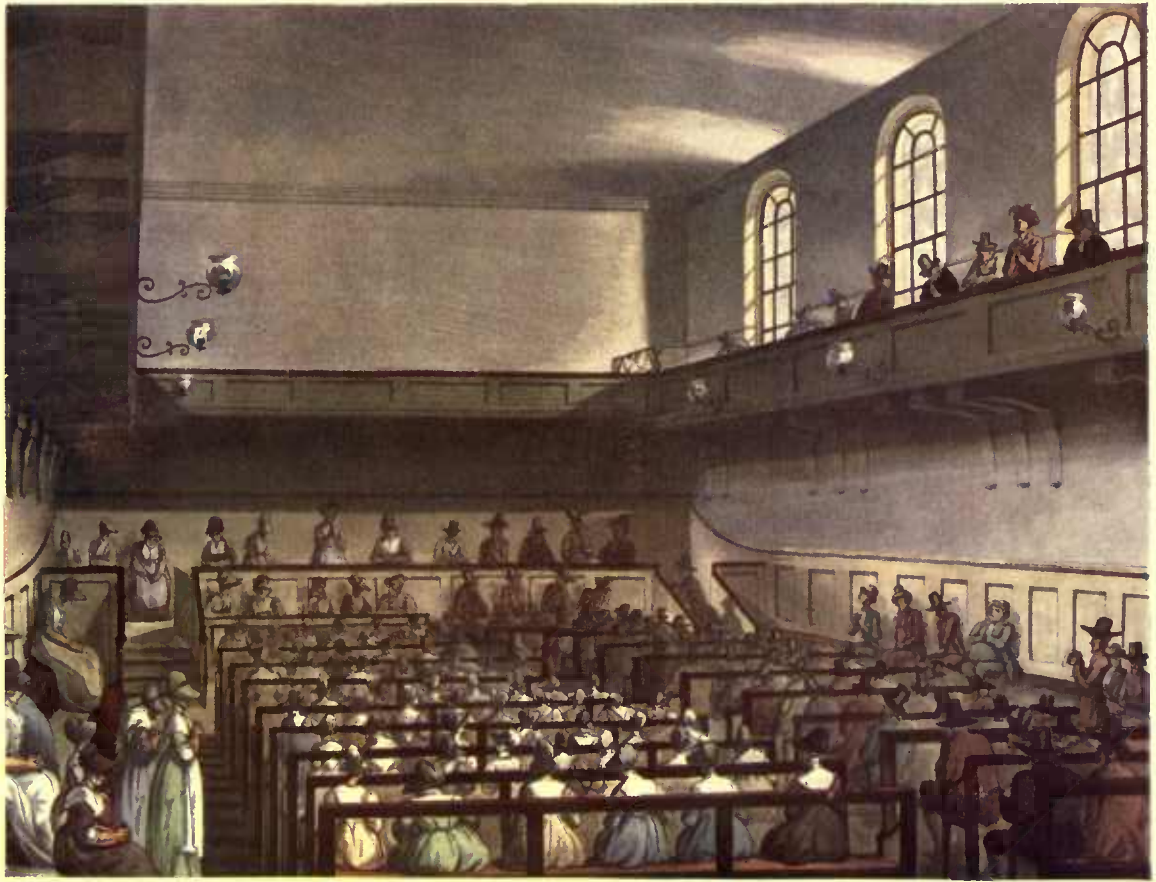
Mr. Anthony Todd, a man of singular abilities and generally beloved, was secretary to the Post-Office sixty-one years: he died about twelve years ago.

The expences of this grand establishment are stated to be about two hundred thousand pounds per annum; but the net revenue, clear of all deductions and charges, placed to the credit of the sinking fund for the year 1808, was upwards of *one million two hundred thousand pounds.*

The Penny-Post, as it was termed for more than a century, originated from the public spirit of a merchant named Dockwra and a Mr. Murray, who, with much difficulty and great expence, in the reign of Charles II. proceeded so far as to establish it; but, strange and perverse as it may appear, every species of opposition and misrepresentation attended its progress, and the projectors had the mortification to find it adjudged to belong to the Duke of York, as a branch of the General Post-Office: but its public utility became so obvious, that it did not cease to exist from that period till about the close of the last century, when government took it under its own immediate controul; and, in order to meet the increased expences of every portion of the undertaking, it was determined to double the charge; and from that period it has received the denomination of the Twopenny Post. In order to facilitate the conveyance of letters and packets, boys are employed, who ride small swift horses, to and from the principal office in Gerard-street, Soho, where may be seen a miniature representation of the proceedings of the General Post-Office.

QUAKERS' MEETING

THE society distinguished by the appellation of Quakers, are known to each other by the name of *Friends*, a title eminently characteristic of that relation, which, under the Christian dispensation, man ought to bear to man. The name of Quakers was given to them by Justice Bennet, of Derby, in the year 1650; because the founder of it admonished him, and those who were present with him, to *tremble* at the name of the Lord. The founder of this society was George Fox; he was born of "honest and sufficient" parents, at Drayton, in Leicestershire, in the year 1624. In his youth he manifested a seriousness not usual with persons of his age; this increased so much as he grew up to manhood, that when he was about twenty, he conceived himself called upon to separate from the world, and to devote himself entirely to religion. It should be observed, that, previous to this period, the Protestant church had been established in England, which many well-meaning persons were not satisfied with, and had therefore formed themselves into a variety of religious sects; others, disapproving these sectaries and the establishment likewise, withdrew from any visible church: these were prepared to follow any leader who inculcated doctrines which coincided with their own preconceived notions. Habit and education were necessarily wanting to render the establishment of any mode of worship, about the period to which we allude, either general or permanent. It does not appear that George Fox made any great progress from the year



Rowlandson & Pugin, delt et sculpt

QUAKERS MEETING.

1643 to 1646, during which time he travelled through many parts of England. In 1647 we find him inculcating the doctrine of perfection. In the following year he became more public in his preaching, and extended his travels. In the succeeding year began his suffering, on account of the religious notions he entertained, and in consequence of his mode of propagating them. In the year 1652, he appears to have fully persuaded himself, that he had received a divine mission to preach and instruct the people. To give but a very short detail of his life would lead us beyond the limits of this publication. He continued his labours as a minister of the gospel till within two days of his death. During this period he settled meetings in most parts of the kingdom, and established the foundation of that rigid system of discipline which characterizes the society of Friends to this day. He travelled through England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, visited the West Indies and America, and several parts of the continent of Europe. He experienced during his life, not only great fatigue of body, but great and unmerited sufferings. He was born in July 1624, and died on the 13th November, 1690, in his sixty-seventh year.

The religious tenets of this society are not sufficiently known, and in the present age are not perhaps likely to be extended: they oppose not only the vices and immoralities which are too prevalent, but they forbid even amusements which education and habits have taught us to consider innocent and harmless. They divide even amusements into useful and hurtful, and strictly forbid the latter. All games of chance are prohibited, as below the dignity of man and his Christian character, as producing an incitement of the passions unfavourable to religious impressions, as tending to produce habits of gaming, and thereby an alteration of the moral character. Music is likewise forbidden, as the use of it is considered by them as almost inseparable from its abuse. The theatre is expressly forbidden, for many reasons; as the drama professes to reform vice, and personates the characters of others, as it inculcates false sentiments, and weakens morality, as it disqualifies man for the pleasures of religion as well as domestic enjoyments. Dancing is interdicted principally as connected with public assemblies; as, under the circumstances usually connected with this amusement, it leads to a frivolous levity and an excitement of the evil passions. Novels are forbidden, as they tend to produce an affectation of knowledge, a romantic spirit, and a perverted morality. Diversions of the field are forbidden, because, if resorted to as such, they are considered as a breach of moral law. An examination of the discipline of Quakers, and the objects and forms of their monthly, quarterly, and annual meetings for this purpose; their manner of administering the discipline, and the process and effect of excommunication upon the society, would embrace too wide a field. In their dress they are plain, and deviate less than any other class from the simple style which distinguished their ancestors from the extravagent modes of their contemporaries. They have particularly defined the object of dress, and incorporated this article into their discipline. They are not less plain and simple in their furniture, for similar reasons. In their common intercourse with the world they have adopted the singular pronoun *thou*, instead of the plural *you*, as more conformable to grammar, and "because the word *you (vos)*," says William Penn, "was first ascribed, by way of flattery, to proud popes and emperors, imitating the heathen's vain homage to their gods, thereby ascribing a plural honour to a single person." Another distinction peculiar to this society is, that they give no titles of address or of honour, in which they make no exception in favour of royalty; and to the days and months they give arithmetical names. The Quakers do not drink healths, and the women never retire after dinner and leave the men drinking: indeed sobriety seems to be peculiarly the virtue of the members of this society.

The Quakers are distinguished by various other singularities. In their public worship, where total silence prevails, unless any brother or sister is moved by the divine spirit to pronounce a mere word of exhortation, the congregation sit covered without ceremony; nay, they often break up the meeting without any thing having been said. As they hold it unlawful for Christians to swear at all, they are exempted by our courts of justice from the necessity of taking an oath, and in such cases where that test is required from the rest of their fellow-subjects, the affirmation of a Quaker is held to be sufficient. Such is the aversion which they profess from war and bloodshed, that they not only refuse to bear arms, but have even been known to dismiss from their communion some members who were engaged in the manufacture or sale of them.

The society of *Friends* have several meeting-houses in this metropolis, the chief of which are situated in Bishopsgate-street, Gracechurch-street, St. Martin's-lane, St. John-street, Southwark, and Ratcliffe.

END OF VOLUME THE SECOND.

ERRATA

Page 104, line 27, for *Campden* read *Camden*.
Page 112, line 14, for *carries* read *carriages*.
Page 125, line 9, for *St. Benet's* read *St. Bennet's*.

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